

My amazing title

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ADVISOR:
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Abstract

The abstract should be a short summary of your thesis work. A paragraph is usually sufficient here.

Acknowledgments

Use this space to thank those who have helped you in the thesis process (professors, staff, friends, family, etc.). If you had special funding to conduct your thesis work, that should be acknowledged here as well.

Table of Contents

Abstract	i
Acknowledgments	iii
List of Tables	vi
List of Figures	vii
Chapter 1: Introduction	1
1.1 Background	1
1.2 Data	3
1.2.1 Coal Ash Rule	3
1.2.2 Source of Data	4
1.2.3 Variables	5
1.2.4 Plan of Action	5
Chapter 2: Methodology	7
2.1 Censored Data	8
2.1.1 Right Censoring	8
2.1.2 Left Censoring	10
2.1.3 Interval Censoring	11
2.2 Challenges of Reporting Censored Data	12
2.3 Approaches	14
2.3.1 Substitution Approach	14

2.3.2	Maximum Likelihood Estimation	16
2.3.3	Reverse KM	18
2.3.4	Regression on Order Statistics	20
Chapter 3:	Simulations	23
3.1	ADEMPS	23
3.1.1	Aims	23
3.1.2	Data-Generating Mechanisms	23
3.1.3	Estimands	23
3.1.4	Methods	23
3.1.5	Performance Measures	23
3.2	Results	23
3.3	Discussion	23
3.3.1	Limitations	24
3.4	Study on Real Data	24
Chapter 4:	Conclusion	25
Corrections	27
References	29

List of Tables

List of Figures

1.1	Difference Between Upgradient and Downgradient Wells	2
2.1	Right Censoring Example	9
2.2	Left Censoring Example	10
2.3	Interval Censoring Example	11

Chapter 1 Introduction

1.1 Background

Coal is one of the most dangerous combustible fuels which is being burned in all across the world as one of the largest methods of obtaining energy. Yet, although it is a fossil fuel which is naturally abundant and easy to utilize, it is comprised of a long list of dangerous chemicals including – but not limited to: arsenic, radium, boron, and a large list of other chemicals which prove to be dangerous to humans and animals alike. (Kelderman et al., 2019)

Power plants produce electricity by burning this coal, and as a result of how prevalent it is within the US - over 100 million tons of coal ash are produced every year. This side-product as a result of the coal combustion is often disposed by directly being dumped into landfills and waste ponds. (Kelderman et al., 2019)

Only recently have these complaints and lawsuits regarding the disposing practices made by non-profit environmental organizations been heard. Due to the onslaught of pressure put on the Environmental Protection Agency – the Coal Ash Rule was born in 2015. (Kelderman et al., 2019)

This rule has forced over 265 coal power plants – about 3/4 of all coal power plants in the US - to make data regarding chemical concentrations publicly available to the general population. (Kelderman et al., 2019)

In their analysis using this data, the Environmental Integrity Project – a non-profit

organization dedicated to issues involving environmental justice have concluded that essentially all groundwater under coal plants are contaminated. (Kelderman et al., 2019)

However, is this really the case? There are many naturally occurring chemicals existing in groundwater as such, perhaps their claims are overstated.



Figure 1.1: Difference Between Upgradient and Downgradient Wells

Typically in a coal ash plant, there exists two types of wells: upgradient wells and downgradient wells. These wells are essential to measure the amount of contamination being caused by coal ash. Upgradient wells, also known as background wells, measures the concentrations of chemicals in groundwater before it passes through an coal ash dump. Conversely, downgradient wells measure the concentrations of chemicals in groundwater after it passes through a coal ash dump.

- “80% of the US population is served by 14% of the utilities,” so if something were to get into the water distribution system, it can easily spread amongst the

US population which is why contamination in water services is so important.
(Byer & Carlson, 2019)

With this information, typically – one estimates the amount of chemical contamination caused by a coal as dump by subtracting the upgradient concentration from the downgradient concentration of a chemical (downgradient concentration - upgradient concentration).

However, due to the lack of proper reporting guidelines prior to the enactment of the Coal Ash Rule, we believe that there may be retired or even unregulated upgradient wells which can cause the concentrations of chemicals being recorded from these upgradient wells to be inaccurate or even completely wrong.

Our end goal remains the same as the EIP: to identify contaminated groundwater in coal plants – but to attempt to find a way to effectively correct the improper/inaccurate values resulting from LOD errors and other factors which the EIP may not have considered.

The limit of detection problem stems from the measuring devices' inability to obtain chemical concentrations smaller than a certain threshold amount, thus affecting the measurements recorded.

Our plan is to utilize bootstrapping and imputation techniques to correct for these measurements by accounting for the innate contamination which may be caused by factors such as retired and unregulated wells that were mentioned before.

1.2 Data

1.2.1 Coal Ash Rule

A large coal ash spill at the Tennessee Valley Authority (TVA) which occurred on December 22, 2008 in Kingston, TN – prompted the Environmental Protection Agency

(EPA) to propose a set of standardized regulations and procedures to address the concerns regarding coal ash plants nationwide in the US. (Environmental Protection Agency, 2020)

This was known as the Coal Ash Rule, passed on December 19, 2014. (Environmental Protection Agency, 2020)

Changes were made to the Coal Ash Rule over the years in the form of ‘amendments,’ one of which made required facility information and data to be made publically available to the public (April 15, 2015 rule change) (Environmental Protection Agency, 2020)

1.2.2 Source of Data

The data used in the study are from the results published in “Annual Groundwater Monitoring and Corrective Action Reports” which were made available to the public in March 2018 as a result of the Coal Ash Rule. (Environmental Integrity Project, 2020)

These reports are in PDF format and are thousands of pages long, which makes it difficult for individuals to look through the data in a meaningful way. (Environmental Integrity Project, 2020)

The EIP obtained the data from an online, publicly available database containing groundwater monitoring results from the first “Annual Groundwater Monitoring and Corrective Action Reports” in 2018 which was collected from coal plants and coal ash dumps under the Coal Ash Rule (Environmental Integrity Project, 2020)

They wrangled the data into a more accessible machine-readable format which contains information from over 443 annual groundwater monitoring reports posted by 265 coal ash plants, which is downloadable from the EIP’s website. (Environmental Integrity Project, 2020)

1.2.3 Variables

The dataset contains information regarding chemical concentrations at coal plants. A coal plant consists of multiple disposal areas for the coal ash that it produces. At each disposal area, there are specific locations that groundwater is being measured, known as wells which represent an observation in the dataset. There are two types of wells – upgradient and downgradient wells. The variables consist of information regarding the specific chemical concentrations of each well. From the 19 different contaminants (antimony, arsenic, boron, etc.) a major problem is that some wells only have measurements for certain chemicals and don't have them for others.

1.2.4 Plan of Action

Within the report, the EIP mentions certain restrictions within the data that have caused their data to potentially be inaccurate (specifically, with limit of detection problems, and a large amount of missing chemical data). The limit of detection problem comes when measuring devices used to measure chemical concentrations are unable to detect below a certain threshold, causing large numbers of observations to have duplicate, wrong values – which can cause for misguided analysis. The other issue is less guided/formed, but for brevity, we think that a lot of the issues in the data comes from the potential possibility of contamination during data collection from investigators from non coal-ash sources. This may include things like: retired/unregulated wells which are old and have chemicals leaking into the groundwater, mismanagement in measuring, etc. My project hopes to work with methods on handling this missing data – alongside investing potential uses of bootstrapping and other resampling methods (potentially?) in order to try to come up with a more statistically accurate and sound result by looking to assuage the problems that the EIP faced in their analysis. Specifically, to

find a way to split up the data into "uncontaminated" and "contaminated" wells in order to find the natural distribution of chemicals in each – and doing to so in the face of data corrupted by LOD problems and inaccuracies. I'm hoping to apply and compare different ways of altering the data to account for these myriad of issues in order to look for more salient findings that the EIP might have missed or if not, to see if improvements can be made regarding the way that contaminated coal ash wells are being identified.

Chapter 2 Methodology

The concept of missing data is ubiquitous within academic disciplines and often complicates innumerable types of real-world studies. Missing data will be defined within this thesis as *occurences within a dataset where there is no value stored for a variable in the observation of interest*. As most studies often utilize data collected through mediums such as surveys, questionnaires, or field research, missing data is an unavoidable problem. Missing data hinders one's ability to work with and analyze the phenomena at hand, as data is often the basis of all studies. One of the most glaring issues with missingness is how it can introduce bias within an analysis, which can more often than not, invalidate a study if not accounted for and handled properly. Missingness can often be detrimental to data quality which can result in increased uncertainty with any types of performed analysis (Hall, Perry, & Anderson, 2020).

This thesis will go into a more specific instance of missing data known as censoring, which is *the condition when one has only partial information regarding the values of a measurement within a dataset*. We will introduce and define the three types of censored data, challenges with the reporting of censored data, alongside a discussion on common statistical approaches to handling censored data.

2.1 Censored Data

As discussed previously, censored data is a specific type of missingness where one has only partial information regarding the values of a measurement in a dataset. There are many types of censoring which can occur, but three main ones which are the most common: right censoring, interval censoring, and left censoring.

2.1.1 Right Censoring

Right censoring is a specific instance in which we only know that the true value of a data point lies above a certain threshold, but it is unknown by how much. Suppose a study on income and mortality is conducted with the variable of interest, T , being the time measured from the start of the study to the death of the participant. The study has a duration of 5 years, in which participants are expected to submit a form regarding their annual income. The value for the participant would be considered to be right-censored if at any point during the study, they failed to follow-up, or if the participant was still alive at the conclusion of the 5 year study. In this design study, several possibilities can occur, illustrated in Figure 2.1.

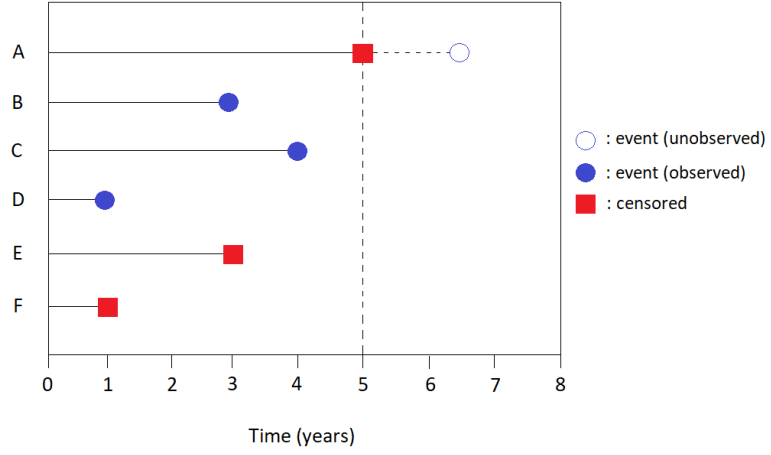


Figure 2.1: Right Censoring Example

As illustrated by individual A in Figure 2.1, this individual lives on until the termination of the study. We don't know at what point they passed away exactly, since they didn't pass away during the time constraints of the study. As such, the only information we have is $T > 5$.

If an individual does pass away at some point, t_i , *during* the study, then $T = t_i$. This can be illustrated within Figure 2.1 by individuals B, C, and D for which $T = 3$, $T = 4$, and $T = 1$.

There is a final possibility for individuals who choose to censor themselves. Illustrated in Figure 2.1 by individuals E and F, we can see that they are marked as censored at $T = 3$ and $T = 1$, respectively. These individuals may have chosen to stop submitting information to the study or drop out of the study entirely without warning. As we have no information about whether or not if they died or simply did not submit their form, all we know is that the individual died/will die at some point after the point at which they were censored.

Right censoring is the most common type of censoring and can often be found in clinical trial studies, mortality studies, and other forms of survival analyses.

2.1.2 Left Censoring

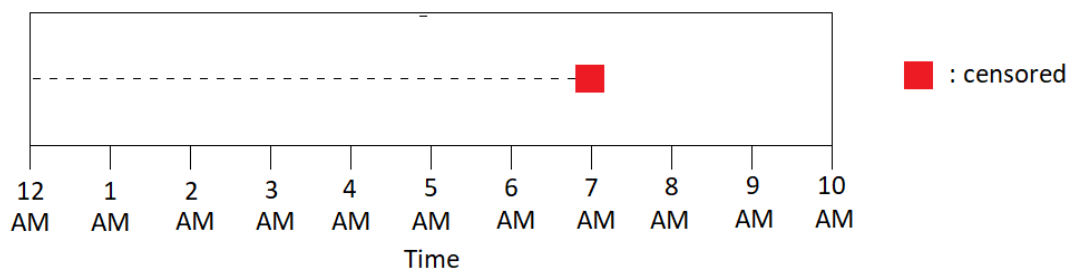


Figure 2.2: Left Censoring Example

In contrast with right censoring, left censoring is a specific instance of censoring in which we only know that the true value of a data point falls below a certain threshold which we call the *limit of detection* (LOD).

To understand this concept better, consider the following example. Imagine a scenario in which you are attempting to estimate the time at which the sun rises each morning. You plan to wake up every morning far before the sun rises, but on the first day of the study, you oversleep and wake up at 7:00 A.M. with the sun already out. We now have an instance of left-censored data. We want to know the time at which the sun rose, but all we have is an upper limit (7:00 A.M.).

Left censoring is commonly found in environmental, water quality, and chemical-related research where the focus is on the concentration of an analyte. Due to limitations on measuring instruments, left censored data are commonly found in

these types of studies. The most pressing issue of left-censored data mostly lie in the difficulty of distinguishing between extremely low values and statistical noise (Hall et al., 2020).

2.1.3 Interval Censoring

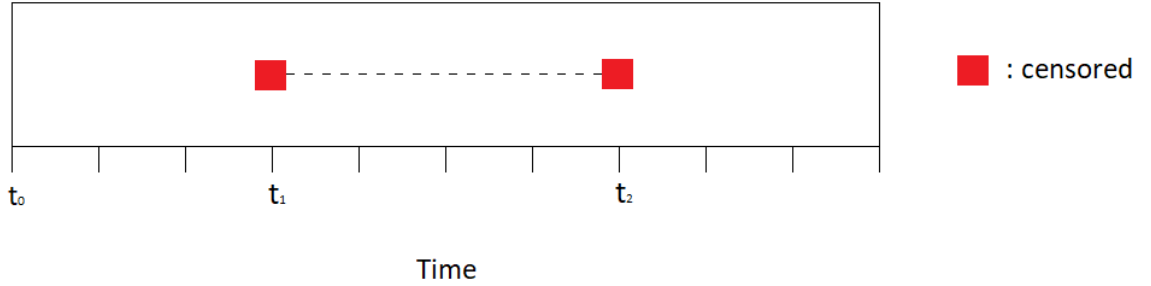


Figure 2.3: Interval Censoring Example

Interval censoring is another form of censoring in which the random variable of interest is known to be between an interval of two values. Considering a random variable T , which denotes the survival time of interest, if interval censoring is at hand, we can denote the interval containing T to be $I = [t_1, t_2]$, with t_1 being the beginning of the interval and t_2 being the end of the interval.

Left and right censoring are special cases of interval censoring. In the case of left censoring, $t_1 = 0$; and conversely in the case of right censoring, $t_2 = \infty$.

To conceptualize interval censoring, we can consider a example study on virus testing in which participants get their blood drawn in order to detect whether or not they test positive for a virus or not. The random variable in question is T , which represents the exact timepoint at which the subject contracted the virus. If an individual was first tested at time t_1 and tested negative, but was tested again at a later time t_2 and tested positive, the specific time t at which the subject contracted

the virus is unknown. All we know is that it lies somewhere between the interval, $I = [t_1, t_2]$, but not the exact time at which they contracted it.

There are a myriad of types of censoring which can be discussed, however the focus of my thesis deals specifically with the challenges of reporting these values alongside methods of handling left-censored data.

2.2 Challenges of Reporting Censored Data

There is no universal reporting practice for values below the LOD which can lead to confusion amongst researchers. The lack of standardization makes it difficult to distinguish LOD values with uncensored values. This can lead to LOD values unintentionally being overlooked, causing faulty analysis or conclusions which are heavily flawed.

In a study involving the precision of lead measurements near concentrations of the limit of detection, Berthouex (1993) discusses the disparity in practices within chemists on ways to record LOD values. He enumerates in a following list, common reporting practices in this field:

1. Reporting the trace, a chemical whose average concentration is less than $100 \mu g$
2. Reporting the letters ND, which stand for "not detected"
3. Reporting the numerical LOD value itself
4. Reporting "<", followed by the numerical LOD value
5. Reporting some value between 0 and the LOD value, such as one-half the LOD value
6. Reporting the actual measured concentration, even if it falls below the LOD

7. Reporting the actual measured concentration, followed by "(LOD)"

8. Reporting the actual measured concentration with a precision (\pm) statement

The latter three methods are the best procedures to follow, especially from a practical and statistical point of view according to Gilbert (1987). He argues that assuming the small concentration values are not from some sort of measurement error during data collection, then the value holds value. As such, recording a measurement as “below LOD,” without any sort of accompanying value would be discarding useful information which could have been used in practice and analysis.

Berthouex (1993) discusses the prevalence in regards to the practice of censoring data by reporting only values which are above the detection limit and discarding those which fail to yield quantifiable results. He discourages this practice and instead suggests the reporting of measurements, even when those values are below the limit of detection.

Further supporting the stance of keeping all concentration values rather than only those above the detection limit, Monte-Carlo experiments conducted by Gillom (1984) show that linear trends in water-quality data were far more easily able to be detected with uncensored data as compared to censored data. The methods they used to handle censored water quality data were found to produce wild and erratic estimates for the mean and standard deviation of datasets with higher censoring levels than those without. They found a general trend of decreasing classification success with increased censoring levels, attributing it to the limited availability of information in censored data.

2.3 Approaches

It is important to note that the values below the LOD still contain information, specifically that the values is between the lower bound value (if it exists) and the LOD (Chen et al., 2011). As such, there are a variety of statistical treatments to handle censored data which have been popularized in the statistical literature which will be discussed within this section.

Omission involves the deletion of data points which are deemed to be invalid as a result of left-censoring or any other deficiencies in the data. This is also more commonly known as *available-case analysis*, in which statistical analysis is conducted while only considering the observations which have no missing data on the variables of interest, and excluding the observations with missing values (May, 2012). May argues against this approach and claims that the loss of information from discarding data and the inflation of standard errors of estimates (when discussing missingness in a regression context) will invariably be inflated as a result of the decreased sample size. The advantages of omission lies in its ease of implementation.

Apart from available-case analysis, over the past century, a myriad of methods to deal with censoring have been developed to counter this issue – some more statistically sound than others. We will review some of the most common methods to estimate descriptive statistics involving censored data, which include: substitution, maximum likelihood estimation, Kaplan-Meier, and regression on order statistics (Lafleur et al., 2011).

2.3.1 Substitution Approach

Often condemned in papers as a statistically unsound method to handle censored data, substitution methods are ubiquitous in the chemical and environmental sciences

as an appropriate and recommended method to work with left-censored chemical concentration data (Canales, 2018).

The substitution method simply involves imputing in a replacement value in lieu of the censored data point. The lack of a global, standardized replacement value to substitute is one of the most pronounced downside of this method. The replacement value used may differ between studies but common values include: $\frac{LOD}{2}$, $\frac{LOD}{\sqrt{2}}$, or LOD (Lee & Helsel, 2005). Different disciplines have their own suggested “best” replacement value to use, an example being $\frac{3}{4}$ times the LOD being a common replacement value in geochemistry (Croveti, 1993). However, it must be recognized that the substitution method is a statistically unsound technique which is often used in non-rigorous statistical settings due to them being quite easy to implement (Chen et al., 2011). As such, there have been several studies in order to investigate the effectiveness of the method.

Proponents of the substitution method claim that the replacement value $\frac{LOD}{2}$ is useful for data sets in which the majority of the data are below the LOD or when the distribution of the data is highly skewed; the definition of “highly skewed” being any distribution with a geometric standard deviation (a measure of spread commonly used in tandem with log-normal distributions) of 3 or more (Hornung & Reed, 1989). They also suggest using $\frac{LOD}{\sqrt{2}}$ when there are only a few data points below the LOD or when the data is not highly skewed.

Substitution methods are flawed as they can often introduce a “signal” which was not originally present within the data, or even obstruct an actual signal which was present in the original data (Lee & Helsel, 2005). Numerous authors have advised against the usage of substitution methods for being statistically inappropriate to use. Glass and Gray (2001) found that both introduce large errors and biases in descriptive statistics of interest. Thompson and Nelson (2001) conducted a study in

which they found similar results, in that it often led to biased parameter estimates and “artificially small standard error estimates.” Hewett and Ganser (2007) also found in their simulation study that the substitution method yielded the lowest average bias and root mean squared error values (comparison metrics to measure accuracy) in their estimation of the mean. Overall, the overall consensus seems to advise against the practice of these substitution techniques.

2.3.2 Maximum Likelihood Estimation

Maximum likelihood (ML) estimation is a parametric technique which allows us to estimate the parameters of a distribution or model when the data is from a multivariate normal distribution.

To give a brief introduction to the mechanisms of ML estimation, let $f(x|\theta)$ denote the probability density function (PDF) which specifies the probability of observing the random variable x given the parameter θ .

Given a random, independently and identically distributed (*i.i.d.*) set of random variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n from $f(x|\theta)$, we know that each individual observation x_i 's are statistically independent from one another, which allows us to express the PDF as the product of all individual densities. For every observed random sample x_1, \dots, x_n , we can define the joint density function to be:

$$f(x_1, \dots, x_n|\theta) = f(x_1|\theta) \dots f(x_n|\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i|\theta)$$

In most real-life scenarios, the actual (observed) data is already given, and our goal is to find the PDF which is most likely to generate our observed values. In order to solve this inverse problem, we introduce the likelihood function, which is defined as the joint density of the observed data as a function of the parameter (with the data

held as a fixed constant).

In mathematical notation, upon observing the given data, $f(x_1, \dots, x_n | \Theta)$ becomes a function of θ alone, so we obtain a likelihood of:

$$lik(\theta) = f(x_1, \dots, x_n | \theta)$$

It is important to recognize the difference which separates the likelihood function and the PDF. The PDF is a function of the observed data given a parameter(s). It gives information regarding the probability of a particular data value for a fixed parameter.

On the other hand, the likelihood function is a function of the parameter, given a set of observed data. It tells us the likelihood of observing a particular parameter value for a fixed set of data.

Our goal is to obtain the ML estimate of our parameter which maximizes the likelihood function, $lik(\theta)$, in other words, to obtain a θ which makes our observed data the most probable.

As we previously declared our random variables X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n to be i.i.d, we can rewrite the likelihood to be a product of the marginal densities:

$$lik(\theta) = \prod_{i=1}^n f(x_i | \theta)$$

in which we can then maximize the likelihood to find the best mle of θ to best capture our observed data.

As a technique which heavily relies upon knowing a distribution which best models the data, MLE is one of the most well-known parametric approaches to handling LOD values. Many studies use the MLE as a sort of baseline method of handling censored values, to which they compare their new techniques upon (Ganser & Hewett, 2010). However, it must be known that regardless of the prevalence of the MLE

method, it is not free from its own downfalls. Canales (2018) found that the MLE method seems to underperform when the data in question was highly skewed, in which overinflated mean squared errors were often obtained. Being a technique which is so heavily dependent upon distributional assumptions, an incorrect specification of the distribution of the censored data will inevitably lead to misleading results (Bolks, DeWire, & Harcum, 2014).

The MLE method we will be utilizing is actually performed by obtaining regression estimates of slope(s) and intercepts through maximum likelihood with censored data. The `cenmle` function in the `NADA` package allows the user to specify censored and uncensored data, and uses the LOD as the placeholder. As this method is not an imputation technique, values are not replaced. This method allows us to calculate the summary statistics for the entire data set – including the censored values.

2.3.3 Reverse KM

As a phenomenon, censoring is most often discussed in survival analysis, which concerns itself with techniques to analyze a time to an *event variable*. As its name suggests, these variables measure the time which passes until some sort of event occurs. This can be as innocuous as the time until device breaks, time until birds migrate away from their homes, time until a person passes away, etc. Regardless of which, all these scenarios share a common problem in terms of the possibility of the data being “censored.”

The Kaplan-Meier (KM) method is a common nonparametric technique used to deal with censored data. Originally developed to handle right-censored survival analysis data, an offshoot method in the form of the Reverse Kaplan-Meier Estimator, have sprung up as a way to handle left censored data as well (Gillespie et al., 2010). The advantages of the KM method lie in its robustness as a nonparametric method; it

performs well with a wide range of distributions. Many recommend its usage for when there are cases of severe censoring, instances where $> 90\%$ of the data is censored (Canales, 2018).

To introduce the concept of the KM-estimator, it is helpful to take a look into its usages in survival analysis studies where the focus is often on a type of “time to a certain event occurring”, often being cases such time to death, or time to failure.

The KM-estimator is a nonparametric statistic used to estimate the survival curve from the empirical data while accounting for the possibilities of certain values being censored. It does this by assuming that censoring is independent from the event of interest and that survival probabilities remain the same in observations found early in the study and those recruited later in the study.

The KM-estimator when performing an empirical estimation of the survival curve at time t can be represented by the following equation:

$$\hat{S}(t) = \prod_{x_j \leq t} \left(1 - \frac{d_j}{y_j}\right)$$

where x_j is the distinct event time, d_j is the number of event occurrences at time x_j , and y_j is the number of followup times (t_i) that are $\geq x_j$ (how many observations in sample survived at least/or past the time t_i) (Klein & Moeschberge, 2003).

Typically, the KM-estimator can only be used to estimate the distribution function of right-censored data, in which a data point is above a certain threshold, but it is unknown by how much. A simple tweak to the typical KM-method yields the reverse Kaplan-Meier approach, which allows for the estimation of the survival curve with left-censored values. This approach follows exactly the same logic as the Kaplan-Meier estimate of the survival curve, except we reverse the censored indicator and event of interest indicator. In other words, our censor is now the event and the event is

now censored. This allows us to estimate the distribution function and population percentiles for data containing left-censored values (Gillespie et al., 2010).

For our analysis, we will be using the `cenfit` function from the **NADA** package in R to estimate the empirical cumulative distribution function (survival curve) for our left-censored data using the reverse Kaplan-Meier method. Similarly to the MLE method, the KM method is not an imputation method, so we are not replacing censored values with an imputed value, but rather estimating descriptive statistics for the entire dataset – including the censored concentrations (Canales, 2018).

[START HERE]

2.3.4 Regression on Order Statistics

In between both the parametric nature of the MLE approach and nonparametric of the Kaplan-Meier estimator is the regression on order statistics (ROS) method. ROS is a semi-parametric method because it assumes an underlying normal or lognormal distribution for the censored measurements in the data, but make no assumption towards the distribution of uncensored measurements.

The ROS method is roughly based on the simple linear regression model. It works by first plotting the uncensored observed values (ordered from smallest to largest) vs. the quantiles, which is then used to estimate and impute the values of the censored data (Lee & Helsel, 2005). In summary, ROS imputes the censored data using the estimated parameters from the linear regression model of the uncensored observed values versus their quantiles.

In order for ROS to be utilized, there needs to be at least 5 known values and more than half the values within the censored variables must be known. As regression is utilized in this method, the response variable must also be a linear function of the explanatory variable (quantiles). Additionally, the errors should have constant

variance (Lee & Helsel, 2005).

The **NADA** package contains the function **ros** which provides an implementation of regression on order statistics which allows us to calculate descriptive statistics for left censored values.

[INSERT PARAGRAPH TO TRANSITION TO CHAPTER 3 (?)]

Chapter 3 Simulations

[short passage describing what we hope to gain from performing a simulation study]

3.1 ADEMPS

[discuss ademps approach to designing a simulation study] (Morris, White, & Crowther, 2019)

3.1.1 Aims

3.1.2 Data-Generating Mechanisms

3.1.3 Estimands

3.1.4 Methods

3.1.5 Performance Measures

3.2 Results

[place figures/tables from results of simulation study here, along with explanation]

3.3 Discussion

[discuss findings from the simulation study. are the results expected from knowledge gained from literature search? are they different?]

3.3.1 Limitations

[discuss some limitations of the simulation study – ideas include things such as how simulated data \neq real life data, discuss some limitations, future plans?]

3.4 Study on Real Data

[connect back to chapter 1]

Chapter 4 Conclusion

[write a few paragraphss to wrap up entire thesis]

Corrections

A list of corrections after submission to department.

Corrections may be made to the body of the thesis, but every such correction will be acknowledged in a list under the heading “Corrections,” along with the statement “When originally submitted, this honors thesis contained some errors which have been corrected in the current version. Here is a list of the errors that were corrected.” This list will be given on a sheet or sheets to be appended to the thesis. Corrections to spelling, grammar, or typography may be acknowledged by a general statement such as “30 spellings were corrected in various places in the thesis, and the notation for definite integral was changed in approximately 10 places.” However, any correction that affects the meaning of a sentence or paragraph should be described in careful detail. The files `samplethesis.tex` and `samplethesis.pdf` show what the “Corrections” section should look like. Questions about what should appear in the “Corrections” should be directed to the Chair.

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