

**1. Are all head sizes alike?**

The following table, from a 1978 article by Epstein, is discussed by Stephen Jay Gould in his book “The Mismeasure of Man.” Gould read the original article and found that “a glance at Hooton’s original table reveals that the wrong column (\*\*\*\*\*) had been copied and called (\*\*\*\*\*)”.

Table 3.2 Mean and standard deviation of head circumference for people of varied vocational statuses\*.

Vocational Status	N	Mean (in mm)	S.D.
Professional	25	569.9	1.9
Semiprofessional	61	566.5	1.5
Clerical	107	566.2	1.1
Trades	194	565.7	0.8
Public service	25	564.1	2.5
Skilled trades	351	562.9	0.6
Personal services	262	562.7	0.7
Laborers	647	560.7	0.3

\* Source: E A. Hooton, The American Criminal, vol. 1 (Cambridge, Mass.: Harvard Univ. Press, 1939), Table VIII-17.

**Exercise:** Correct the offending entries, by changing the entries or by changing the column header. Explain your reasoning.

**2. Births after The Great Blackout of 1966**

On November 9, 1965, the electric power went out in New York City, and it stayed out for a day – The Great Blackout. Nine months later, newspapers suggested that New York was experiencing a baby boom. The table shows the number of babies born every day during a twenty-five day period, centered nine months and ten days after The Great Blackout.

Number of births in New York, Monday August 1-Thursday August 25, 1966.

Mon	Tue	Wed	Thu	Fri	Sat	Sun
451	468	429	448	466	377	344
448	438	455	468	462	405	377
451	497	458	429	434	410	351
467	508	432	426			

These numbers average out to 436. This turns out to be not unusually high for New York. But there is an interesting twist: the 3 Sundays only average 357.

- How likely is it that the average of three days chosen at random from the table will be 357 or less? What do you infer? Hint: The SD of the 25 numbers in the table is about 40. Formulate the null hypothesis; the

normal approximation can be used.

- The above question and the following footnote come from the Statistics text by Freedman et al.

”Apparently, the New York Times sent a reporter around to a few hospitals on Monday August 8, and Tuesday August 9, nine months after the blackout. The hospitals reported that their obstetric wards were busier than usual – apparently because of the general pattern that weekends are slow, Mondays and Tuesdays are busy. These “findings” were published in a front-page article on Wednesday, August 10, 1966, under the headline ”Births Up 9 Months After the Blackout.” This seems to be the origin of the baby-boom myth.”

**Exercise:** Suggest a better plan for estimating the impact, if any, of the Blackout on the number of births.

- (Still on the subject of births, but now in Qubec). In an effort to bolster sagging birth rate, the Qubec government in its budget of March 1988 implemented a cash bonus of \$4,500 to parents who had a third child. Suggest a method of measuring the impact of this incentive scheme – be both precise and concise.

**3. Planning ahead**

One has to travel a distance of 7500 Km by 4-wheel jeep, over very rough terrain, with no possibility of repairing a tire that becomes ruptured. Suppose one starts with 14 intact tires (the 4, plus 10 spares). It is known that on average, tires rupture at the rate of 1 per 5,000 tire-Kms (the mean interval between punctures is 5,000 tire-Kms). Assume ruptures occur independently of the of tire position or the distance already driven with the tire (i.e., the sources of failure are purely external). Also, ignore the possibility of multiple failures from a single source, e.g. a short bad section of the trail.

Calculate the probability of completing the trip, using the..

- Poisson Distribution for the *number* of ruptures.
- Exact distribution of a sum of distances i.e. of a (fixed) number of ‘*distance*’ random variables.
- Central Limit Theorem to approximate the distribution in ii.
- Central Limit Theorem to approximate the distribution in i.
- Random number facilities in R/SAS to simulate intervals between ruptures.

**4. A random selection?**

A colony of laboratory mice consisted of several hundred animals. Their average weight was about 40 grams, with an SD of about 5 grams. As part of an experiment, graduate students were instructed to choose 25 animals haphazardly, without any definite method. The average weight of these 25 sampled animals was 43 grams. Is choosing animals haphazardly the same as drawing them at random? Assess this by calculating the probability, under strict random selection, of obtaining an average of 43 grams or greater.

**5. Planning ahead**

On the average, conventioners weigh about 150 pounds; the SD is 25 pounds.

- If a large elevator for a convention centre is designed to lift a maximum of 15,500 pounds, the chance it will be overloaded by a random group of 100 conventioners is closest to which of the following: 0.1 of 1%, 2%, 5%, 50%, 95%, 98%, 99.9%? Explain your reasoning.
- The weights of conventioners are unlikely to have a Gaussian (“Normal”) distribution. In the light of this information, are you still comfortable using the Normal distribution for your calculations in part i? Explain carefully. Explain why the ‘random’ is key to being able to answer part i. and what impact it would have if it is not the case.

**6. An unexpected pattern: or is it?**

Data collected on the length of time to diagnose and treat breast cancer show that the diagnostic biopsy results was equally likely to be received on any one of the weekdays from Monday to Friday. Consider the results received the first week of October, say Monday October 1 to Friday October 5. Suppose that the women with positive biopsies then had surgery on one of the weekdays of the last full week of October, i.e., Monday October 22 to Friday October 26. Suppose further that the day of the surgery was also equally likely to be any one of these 5 weekdays, and unrelated to which day the biopsy result was received.

- Derive and plot the probability distribution of the length of the interval (i.e., the number of days) from when the biopsy result was received until the woman had the surgery. Comment on its shape, and why it is this shape, and what would happen if there were several stages, not just 2.
- Calculate the mean and standard deviation of this random variable.

**7. A snail’s pace**

A snail (escargot) starts out to climb a very high wall. During the day it moves

upwards an average of 22 cm (SD 4 cm); during the night, independently of how well it does during the day, it slips back down an average of 12 cm (SD 3 cm). The forward and backward movements on one day/night are also independent of those on another day/night.

- After 16 days and 16 nights, how much vertical progress will it have made? Answer in terms of a mean and SD. Note that – contrary to what many students in previous years calculated – the SD of the total progress made is not 80 cm; show that it is in fact 20 cm.
- What is the chance that, after 16 days and 16 nights, it will have progressed more than 150 cm?
- ”Independence was ‘given’. Did you have to make strong [and possibly unjustified] distributional assumptions in order to answer part b? Explain carefully.

**8. Student’s  $t$ -distribution - beyond  $n = 10$** 

When ‘Student’ published his first table in 1908, it was for the random variable  $z = (\bar{y} - \mu_0)/s$ , not for the  $t = (\bar{y} - \mu_0)/(s/\sqrt{n})$  we see tabulated and used today [Also, the  $s$  in Student’s  $z$  was obtained with a divisor of  $n$ , not  $n - 1$ ].

Moreover, because of the tedious calculations involved, his 1908 table only went up to  $n = 10$ . For  $n > 10$  he suggested calculating the statistic  $z = (\bar{y} - \mu_0)/(s/\sqrt{n-3})$  and obtaining the (approximate) p-value by using the Normal table to finding the tail area corresponding to this  $z$  value.

After showing worked examples for  $n = 10, 6$  and  $2$ , he “conclude(d) with a (fourth) example which comes beyond the range of the tables, there being eleven experiments.”

For this, he uses the approximation  $\Delta \sim N(\bar{d}, s/\sqrt{n-3})$  to arrive at the statement that there is a 0.934 probability “that kiln-dried barley seed gives a higher barley yield than non-kiln-dried seed.” [i.e. that  $\Delta > 0$  – see below]

**Exercise:**

- Use today’s statistical packages or functions (e.g. the `pt` function in R or the `tdist` function in Excel, or `probt` in SAS) to determine how accurate his approximation was in this case.<sup>1</sup> Note that he calculated each SD as  $\{(1/11) \times \sum(\text{Diff} - \bar{\text{Diff}})^2\}^{1/2}$ .
- Do likewise with his other 3  $p$  values (notice the typo in the mean difference in crop value in the last column).

<sup>1</sup>Others would have had to wait for the extended  $z$  table he published in 1917, in order to obtain the exact probability.

**Excerpts from section IX of Student's 1908 paper...**

To test whether it is of advantage to kiln-dry barley seed before sowing, seven varieties of barley were sown (both kiln-dried [KD] and not kiln-dried [NKD]) in 1899 and four in 1900; the results are given in the table. (corn price is in shillings per quarter and the value of the crop is in shillings per acre).

In this case I propose to use the approximation given by the normal curve with standard deviation  $s/\sqrt{n-3}$  and therefore use Sheppard's (Normal) tables, looking up the difference divided by  $s/\sqrt{8}$ . The probability in the case of yield of corn per acre is given by looking up  $33.7/22.3 = 1.51$  in Sheppard's tables. **This gives  $p = 0.934$** , or the odds are about 14 to 1 that kiln-dried corn gives the higher yield.

Similarly  $0.91/0.28 = 3.25$ , corresponding to  $p = 0.9994^2$  so that the odds are very great that kiln-dried seed gives barley of a worse quality than seed which has not been kiln-dried.

Similarly, it is about 11 to 1 that kiln-dried seed gives more straw and about 2 to 1 that the total value of the crop is less with kiln-dried seed.

Year	lbs. head corn per acre			price head corn			cwts. straw per acre			value of crop per acre		
	NKD	KD	Diff	NKD	KD	Diff	NKD	KD	Diff	NKD	KD	Diff
1899	1903	2009	+106	26.5	26.5	0	19.25	25	+5.75	140.5	152	+11.5
1899	1935	1915	-20	28	26.5	-1.5	22.75	24	+1.25	152.5	145	-7.5
1899	1910	2011	+101	29.5	28.5	-1	23	24	+1	158.5	161	+2.5
1899	2496	2463	-33	30	29	-1	23	28	+5	204.5	199.5	-5
1899	2108	2180	+72	27.5	27	-0.5	22.5	22.5	0	162	164	+2
1899	1961	1925	-36	26	26	0	19.75	19.5	-0.25	142	139.5	-2.5
1899	2060	2122	+62	29	26	-3	24.5	22.25	-2.25	168	155	-13
1900	1444	1482	+38	29.5	28.5	-1	15.5	16	+0.5	118	117.5	-0.5
1900	1612	1542	-70	28.5	28	-0.5	18	17.25	-0.75	128.5	121	-7.5
1900	1316	1443	+127	30	29	-1	14.25	15.75	+1.5	109.5	116.5	+7
1900	1511	1535	+24	28.5	28	-0.5	17	17.25	+0.25	120	120.5	+0.5
Ave.	1841.5	1875.2	+33.7	28.45	27.55	-0.91	19.95	21.05	+1.10	145.82	144.68	+1.14
SD	-	-	63.1	-	-	0.79	-	-	2.25	-	-	6.67
SD/ $\sqrt{8}$	-	-	22.3	-	-	0.28	-	-	0.80	-	-	2.40

It will be noticed that the kiln-dried seed gave on an average the larger yield of corn and straw, but that the quality was almost always inferior. At first sight this might be supposed to be due to superior germinating power in the kiln-dried seed, but my farming friends tell me that the effect of this would be that the kiln-dried seed would produce the better quality barley. Dr Voelcker draws the conclusion: "In such seasons as 1899 and 1900 there is no particular advantage in kiln-drying before mowing." Our examination completely justifies this and adds "and the quality of the resulting barley is inferior though the yield may be greater."

<sup>2</sup>As pointed out in Section V, the normal curve gives too large a value for  $p$  when the probability is large. I find the true value in this case to be  $p = 0.9976$ . It matters little, however, to a conclusion of this kind whether the odds in its favour are 1660 to 1 or merely 416 to 1.

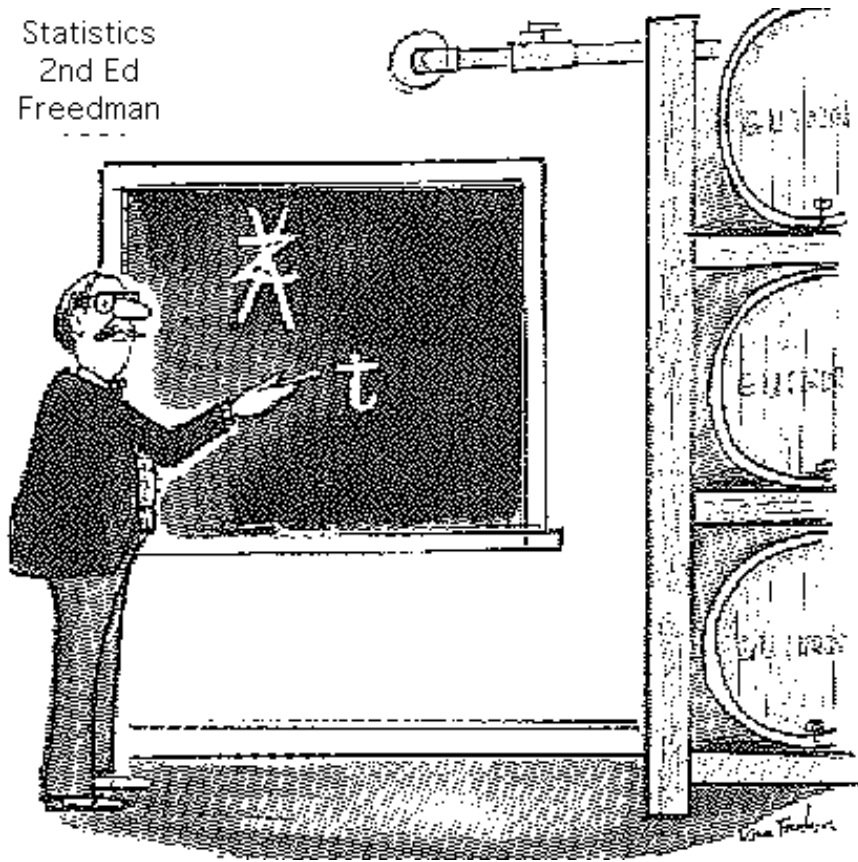


Figure 1: The cartoon refers to switching from the ratio  $(\bar{y} - \mu_Y)/(\sigma/\sqrt{n})$  (where  $\sigma$  is known) to the ratio  $(\bar{y} - \mu_Y)/(s/\sqrt{n})$  (where  $s$  is an estimate of the unknown  $\sigma$ ). Ironically, there is another  $z$  as well: in 1908 Student derived and tabulated the distribution of the ratio:  $z = (\bar{y} - \mu_Y)/s^*$ , with  $s^*$  obtained using a divisor of  $n$ . Later, in the mid 1920s, Fisher got him to switch to the ratio  $(\bar{y} - \mu_Y)/(s/\sqrt{n})$ , with  $s$  obtained using a divisor of  $n - 1$ . It appears that Student was the one who made the name change from *Student's z* to *Student's t*, and Fisher who did the heavy math lifting, and who saw the much wider applicability of the  $t$  distribution. Fisher saw a  $t$  r.v. as (proportional to) the ratio of a Gaussian r.v. to the square root of an independent r.v. with a chi-squared distribution, and the centrality of the concept of 'degrees of freedom'.



'Student' in 1908

Figure 2: from <http://www.york.ac.uk/depts/maths/histstat/people/>

**9. Which SE to use?**

- i. Why would you get contradictory answers if you tested the differences in the means using (a) the SE's in columns 1 and 2, and (b) the SE in column 3?
- ii. Which is correct? Why?

Postoperative Effect on Plasma Ascorbic Acid for 105 Cases; Readings on the Same Individuals

	(1) Pre-op Value (mg/100ml)	(2) Post-op Value (mg/100ml)	(3) Difference (post -pre) (mg/100ml)
All Cases (n = 105)			
Mean	0.43	0.36	-0.07
SE	0.036	0.028	0.015
95%CI	0.36 to 0.50	0.30 to 0.41	-0.10 to -0.04

$$t = 4.93; P < 0.01 \text{ (sig.)}$$

**10. Inhibition of oxidation of low-density lipoprotein with red wine<sup>3</sup>**

Sir: Maxwell and colleagues (July 16, p 193) reported that ingestion of red wine was associated with increased antioxidant activity in human serum by use of an enhanced chemoluminescence assay.[1] They also showed that serum antioxidant values rose during the 4 h after red wine intake. Frankel and colleagues[1] reported the inhibition of oxidation of human low-density lipoproteins (LDL) by phenolic substances in red wine in vitro. Serafini et al[] also showed that the consumption of polyphenol-rich beverages such as red wine and tea was associated with an increase in plasma antioxidant potential. Antioxidant substances inhibit LDL oxidation, thus reducing the development of atherosclerosis, thought to be provoked by atherogenic modified LDL[]. However, **it is important to distinguish between the antioxidant properties of red wine compared with other beverages and foods, a consideration that formed the basis of the protocol in our study.**

10 male volunteers (33-37 years old) drank vodka (40% ethanol) (wash-out period) and then red wine(Chateau Lagrange, 1989) (experimental period), corresponding to a dose of 0.8 g/kg ethanol per day for 14 days. All subjects

<sup>3</sup>Letter to The Lancet 344 page 1152 October 22, 1994

received a standard diet (supplied by Taihei Co, Tokyo) to control their caloric and nutritional intake, and they abstained from drinking tea, coffee, and other such substances to minimize the intake of phenolic substances other than those derived from red wine throughout the study period. Fasting venous blood samples were taken at day -14, 0, and +14. Plasma LDL was prepared by ultracentrifugation and oxidation of LDL was investigated by measuring conjugated dienes formed with 2,2'-azobis (4-methoxy-2,4-dimethylvaleronitrile; V-70).

**Oxidation of LDL was longer at day 14 (lag time 54.7 [SE 2.6] min) than at day 0 (49.1 [2.2] min). There was no difference in oxidation of LDL between day -14 and day 0 (Figure).**

Our results provide direct evidence that regular and long-term consumption of red wine, but not ethanol, inhibited LDL oxidation in vivo. It is suggested that red wine intake may reduce atherosclerosis and morbidity and mortality from coronary heart disease. In this context, our study provides a plausible explanation for the "French paradox" (the apparent incompatibility of a high-fat diet with a low incidence of coronary heart disease).

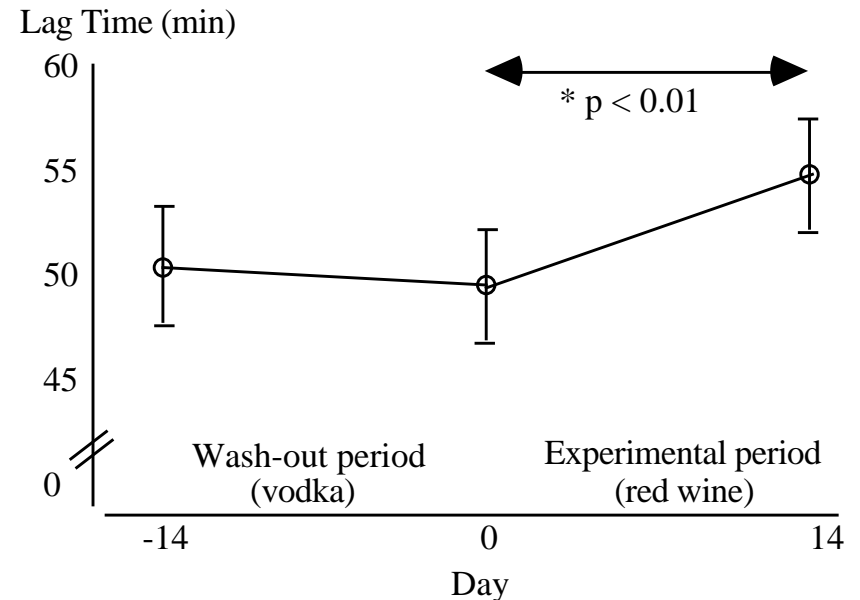


Fig 1: LDL oxidation in volunteers; values are means(SE).

\* paired t-test

- i. Calculate the SD and variance of the 10 lag times at Day 0 and at Day 14.
- ii. The authors used “error bars” of  $\pm 1$  SE rather than  $\pm$  some larger multiple of the SE, presumably so as to ensure that the two CI’s for day 0 and day 14 did not overlap. If you were going to put a 95% CI at each point, what multiple would you use?
- iii. If the authors calculated a CI for the mean difference as  $54.7 - 49.1 \pm m \times (2.6^2 + 2.2^2)^{1/2}$  they would find that for any multiple  $m$  bigger than about 1.65, the corresponding confidence interval included a mean difference of zero. Does this mean that the difference is not statistically significant at conventional levels of significance? How does one reconcile this with the  $P < 0.01$  reported by the authors? [Calculating the SE as  $[s^2(1/10+1/10)]^{1/2}$  where  $s^2$  is the weighted average of the two variances, would give the same SE in this example; so the issue is not one of separate versus pooled variances! Nor is it an issue of 1- versus 2-sided tests!]

### 11. Heights of *self*- vs. *cross*-fertilized *Zea Mays* plants<sup>4</sup>

Use R or SAS or Excel to double check Fisher’s analysis of Darwin’s data.

Pot	Crossed	Self
1	23.5	17.375
1	12	20.375
1	21	20
2	22	20
2	19.125	18.375
2	21.5	18.625
3	22.125	18.625
3	20.375	15.25
3	18.25	16.5
3	21.625	18
3	23.25	16.25
4	21	18
4	22.125	12.75
4	23	15.5
4	12	18

Data available under Resources for mean-quantile

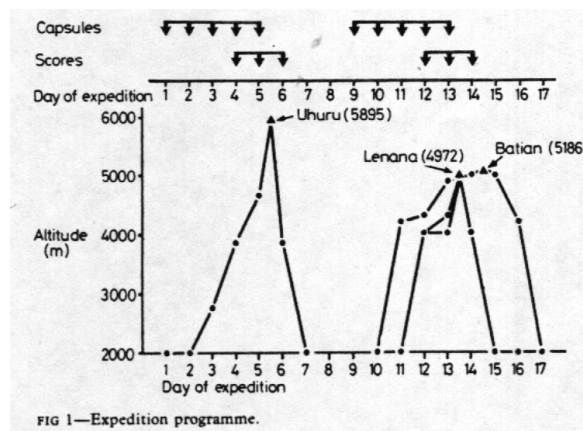
<sup>4</sup>From Darwin 1876; see Figure 3 in extracted material. See also Chapter III of Fisher’s “Design of Experiments”

### 12. Evaluating the impact of an incentive scheme

A bank wonders whether omitting the annual credit card fee for customers who charge at least \$3000 a year would increase the amount they charge on its credit card. It plans to evaluate the potential of such an incentive, by offering it to an srs of  $n$  of its existing credit card customers, and comparing the amount these customers charge in 2008 – with the new policy – with the amount that they charged last year under the old policy.

- i. Suppose the bank wanted to be quite certain<sup>5</sup> of detecting a mean increase of \$150 in the amount charged, at an  $\alpha = 0.01$  significance. Would a sample of  $n = 50$  accomplish this? How about a sample of  $n = 100$ ?<sup>6</sup>
- ii. If they find a statistically significant increase at  $\alpha = 0.01$ , should they conclude that the incentive increases the amounts customers charge?
- iii. Describe any concerns/misgivings you have about the bank’s proposed design, and how they might modify/strengthen it.<sup>7</sup>

**13. Acetazolamide in prevention of acute mountain sickness: a double-blind controlled cross-over study** In one-paragraph describe the ‘experimental-design’ lessons learned from this ‘Kilimanjaro - Mt Kenya’ study, and why it helps to have a ‘Plan B.’



<sup>5</sup>When asked what they mean by pretty certain, they say with at least 95% probability.

<sup>6</sup>The bank examined the records of *all* those who charged at least \$3000 in 2005, and calculated the 2006 minus 2005 amount for each one. The mean difference was +\$56 with a SD of \$412.

<sup>7</sup>Hint: see the list of ‘sources of invalidity’ in Table 1 of Campbell and Stanley, and their explanations, before and after this table, of the ones you think are relevant here.