

**Biost 517**  
**Applied Biostatistics I**  
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Lecture 10:  
Inference About Means:  
One Sample

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**Lecture Outline**  
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- Point Estimates
- Confidence Intervals
- Hypothesis Tests

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**Inference for Means**  
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- Most common parameter used as a basis for statistical inference is the mean
- Tends to reflect a wide variety of differences between distributions
  - E.g., extremely sensitive to changes in the tail of distributions
- Statistical theory allow us to know the sampling distribution, and thus allows us to do inference

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**Point Estimate**  
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- Most often estimate population mean with sample mean
- Always unbiased estimate for the true mean
  - Tends to true mean across replicate experiments
- Always consistent estimate for the true mean
  - Tends to true mean as sample size increases
- Often minimum variability
  - Especially when the distribution of measurements is approximately normal

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### Approximate Sampling Distn

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- Sample means are asymptotically normally distributed

Data  $(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$  are independent, identically distributed, with  $E(X_i) = \mu$  and  $Var(X_i) = \sigma^2 < \infty$

For large  $n$ :  $\bar{X} \sim N\left(\text{mean } \mu, \text{var } \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$

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### What Should We Expect?

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- If true mean is  $\mu$ , true SD is  $\sigma$ , and sample size is  $n$ : sample mean should be

between	with probability
$\mu - 1.645 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ and $\mu + 1.645 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$	90%
$\mu - 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ and $\mu + 1.96 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$	95%
$\mu - 2.576 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ and $\mu + 2.576 \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$	99%
$\mu - z_{1-\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ and $\mu + z_{1-\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$	$100(1-\alpha)\%$

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### Confidence Intervals

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- Frequentist confidence interval estimates
  - “For what values of the population parameter are these data fairly typical?”
- How should we define “typical”?
  - Not in the upper extreme of the sampling distn?
  - Not in the lower extreme of the sampling distn?
  - In neither of the “tails” of the sampling distn?
- How should we define extreme?
  - 5%, 2.5%, 1%?

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### Lower Confidence Bound

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- The true mean that is so low that we would not expect so high a sample mean
  - “not have expected” = probability is less than  $\alpha$

If  $\mu = \mu_L$ , with probability  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  we expect

$$\bar{X} \leq \mu_L + z_{1-\alpha} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

So  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  lower confidence bound is

$$\mu_L = \bar{X} - z_{1-\alpha} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

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### Upper Confidence Bound

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- The true mean that is so high that we would not expect so low a sample mean
  - “not have expected” = probability is less than  $\alpha$

If  $\mu = \mu_U$ , with probability  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  we expect

$$\bar{X} \geq \mu_U - z_{1-\alpha} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

So  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  upper confidence bound is

$$\mu_U = \bar{X} + z_{1-\alpha} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

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### 100(1- $\alpha$ )% Confidence Interval

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- Set of all true means that reasonably result in the observed sample mean
  - “reasonably” = central  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  of sampling distrn

$100(1 - \alpha)\%$  confidence interval is  $(\mu_L, \mu_U)$

$$\mu_L = \bar{X} - z_{1-\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

$$\mu_U = \bar{X} + z_{1-\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

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### Small Sample Adjustment

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- Almost always have to estimate the population standard deviation
  - With continuous data, use the sample standard deviation  $s$
- Use critical values for the t distribution
  - Exactly correct if the data were normal
  - Generally behaves well in other settings

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### 100(1- $\alpha$ )% Confidence Interval

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- Set of all true means that reasonably result in the observed sample mean
  - “reasonably” = central  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  of sampling distrn

$100(1 - \alpha)\%$  confidence interval is  $(\mu_L, \mu_U)$

$$\mu_L = \bar{X} - t_{n-1, 1-\alpha/2} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$$

$$\mu_U = \bar{X} + t_{n-1, 1-\alpha/2} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$$

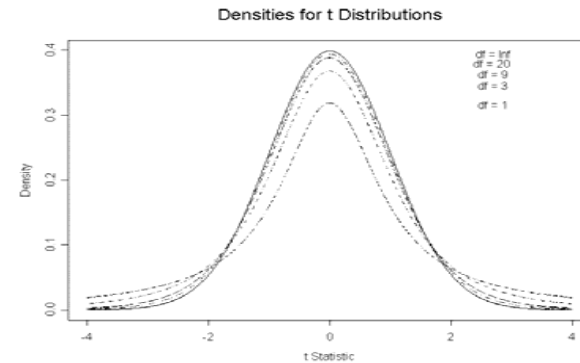
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### t Distribution: Properties

- "Degrees of freedom" related to sample size
  - Usually the sample size minus the number of parameters used to estimate the mean
- Symmetric about 0
- Heavier tails with decreasing degrees of freedom
  - 1 degree of freedom is Cauchy (no mean)
  - Infinite degrees of freedom is standard normal

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### t Distribution Densities



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### t Distribution Quantiles

- Selected upper quantiles of the t distribution:  $t_{df, 1-\alpha}$

df	.01	.025	.05
1	31.821	12.706	6.314
3	4.541	3.182	2.353
9	2.821	2.262	1.833
20	2.528	2.086	1.725
50	2.403	2.009	1.676
Inf	2.326	1.960	1.645

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### Stata: CI for Population Mean

- `"ci var, level(#)"`
  - # is an integer between 10 and 99
  - a default can be set by "set level #"
- `"cii #n #mn #sd, level(#)"`
  - "immediate" CI by supplying n, sample mean, and sample standard deviation
- Commands for t test also give 95% CI
  - `"ttest var"`
  - `"ttesti #n #mn #sd #val"`

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### Example: FEV in Smokers

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```
. bysort smoker: ci fev
```

-> smoker = 0

Var	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
fev	589	2.57	0.04	2.50	2.63

-> smoker = 1

Var	Obs	Mean	Std. Err.	[95% Conf. Interval]	
fev	65	3.28	0.09	3.09	3.46

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### Example: FEV in Smokers

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- Best estimate of mean FEV
  - Nonsmokers: 2.57 l / sec
  - Smokers: 3.28 l / sec
- Interval estimate for mean FEV:
  - Nonsmokers: 95% confident that the true mean is between 2.50 l / sec and 2.63 l / sec
  - Smokers: 95% confident that the true mean is between 3.09 l / sec and 3.46 l / sec

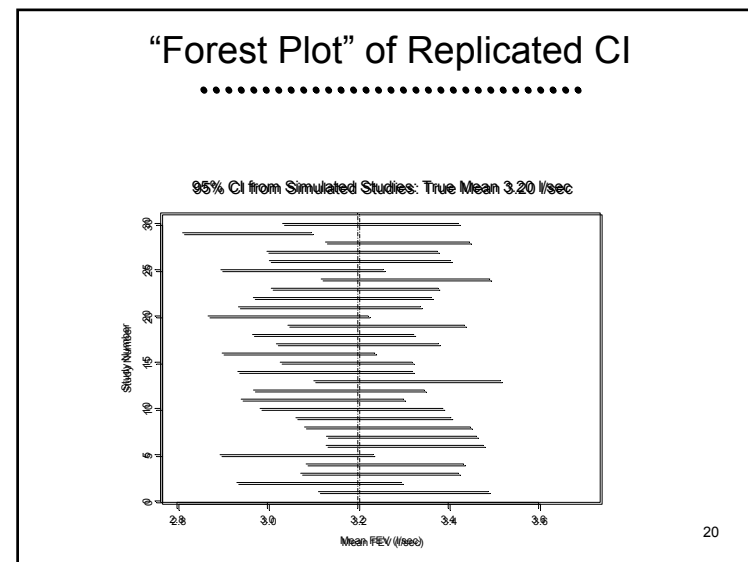
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### Interpretation of CI: Boring

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- 95% CI for Smokers: 3.09 to 3.46 l / sec
- CORRECT, BUT BORING:
  - Of all CI computed in this manner, 95% of them will “cover” the true mean
    - (This says nothing about the numbers 3.09 and 3.46, because in repeated experiments, we would get different CI)

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### Interpretation of CI: Wrong

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- 95% CI for Smokers: 3.09 to 3.46 l / sec
  
- **WRONG:**
  - Probability is 95% that the true mean is between 3.09 and 3.46 l / sec
    - (This is a Bayesian statement that would have to be based on a prior distribution for the mean FEV)

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### Interpretation of CI: Best

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- 95% CI for Smokers: 3.09 to 3.46 l / sec
  
- **BEST:**
  - The sample mean we observed (3.28 l / sec) is typical of what we expect if the true mean were between 3.09 l / sec and 3.46 l / sec
    - (Frequentist confidence intervals are statements about the probability of observing data under hypothesized true values of the parameter)

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### Comparison of CI

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- 95% CI for Nonsmokers: 2.59 to 2.63 l/sec
- 95% CI for Smokers: 3.09 to 3.46 l/sec
  
- The two CI do not overlap
  - There is no true value of the mean that would typically lead to both of these observations
  - With independent groups, this finding ensures a “statistically significant” difference between the true means
  - BUT: Statistical significance can occur with overlapping confidence intervals

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### Hypothesis Tests of Means

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- One sample t test: To test hypotheses that the true mean is in some particular range
  
- Null Hypothesis
  - Usually status quo
    - We will tend to believe this unless we “prove” otherwise
  - What we hope to disprove
  
- Alternative Hypothesis
  - What we hope is true

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### One- vs Two-sided tests

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- One sided test of greater alternative
  - Null  $H_0: \mu \leq \mu_0$  vs Alt :  $\mu \geq \mu_1 > \mu_0$
  
- One sided test of lesser alternative
  - Null  $H_0: \mu \geq \mu_0$  vs Alt :  $\mu \leq \mu_1 < \mu_0$
  
- Two sided test
  - Null  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$  vs Alt :  $\mu \neq \mu_0$ 
    - Lower Alt:  $H_{1-}: \mu < - \mu_1$
    - Null  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$
    - Upper Alt:  $H_{1+}: \mu > \mu_1$

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### Choosing One- vs Two-sided

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- What will change your behavior?
  
- E.g., New treatment vs Placebo
  - One-sided test
    - Only adopt new treatment if better
  
- E.g., Existing treatment vs Placebo
  - Two-sided test
    - Push new treatment if better
    - Neutral if about equal
    - Warn against new treatment if worse

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### Computing P values

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- Frequentist P value
  - Probability of observing as (or more) extreme results

Suppose we observe  $\bar{X} = \bar{x}$

Lower one - sided P value       $\Pr(\bar{X} \leq \bar{x} \mid \mu = \mu_0)$

Upper one - sided P value       $\Pr(\bar{X} \geq \bar{x} \mid \mu = \mu_0)$

Two - sided P value       $\Pr(|\bar{X} - \mu| \leq |\bar{x} - \mu_0| \mid \mu = \mu_0)$

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### Computing P values using t

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- Using t statistic

Standardized statistic       $T = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{s / \sqrt{n}} \sim t_{n-1}$

Lower one - sided P value       $\Pr\left(t_{n-1} \leq \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{s / \sqrt{n}}\right)$

Upper one - sided P value       $\Pr\left(t_{n-1} \geq \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{s / \sqrt{n}}\right)$

Two - sided P value       $2 \times \Pr\left(t_{n-1} \geq \frac{|\bar{x} - \mu_0|}{s / \sqrt{n}}\right)$

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### Stata: One sample t test

- Stata will give you everything you want quite easily
- "tprob (df, t)"
  - Function returns two-sided P value
- Performing t test:
  - "ttest var = #val"
  - "ttesti #n #mn #sd #val"
    - provide P values for tests that the mean is equal to #val
    - provide 95% confidence intervals

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### Example: PSA data set

- Test that mean nadir is 15.0 (Why?)
- ```
. ttest nadir=15
One-sample t test      Number of obs =      50

Varble | Mean StdErr   t   P>|t|   [95% CI]
-----+-----
nadir  | 16.36  5.55  2.95  0.005  5.21  27.51
Degrees of freedom: 49

Ho: mean(nadir) = 15
Ha: mean < 15      Ha: mean ~= 15      Ha: mean > 15
t =   0.2450      t =   0.2450      t =   0.2450
P<t=  0.5963      P>|t|= 0.8075      P>t=  0.4037
```

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### Example: Interpretation

- The observed results are not atypical of those that might be obtained when the true mean is 15 (P=.81).
- Based on these results, we cannot with 95% confidence reject the hypothesis that the true mean is 15.
- We can reject with 95% confidence hypotheses that the true population mean is less than 5.21 or greater than 27.51.

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### Extension to Other Settings

- The one sample tests of means are easily extended to other settings
  - Tests of geometric means
    - Perform inference on log transformed data
    - (Best to "back-transform" by exponentiating)
  - Tests for changes in paired samples
    - Perform inference on differences (or ratios) of measurements within individuals
  - Furthermore, the tests comparing two independent samples look much the same

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