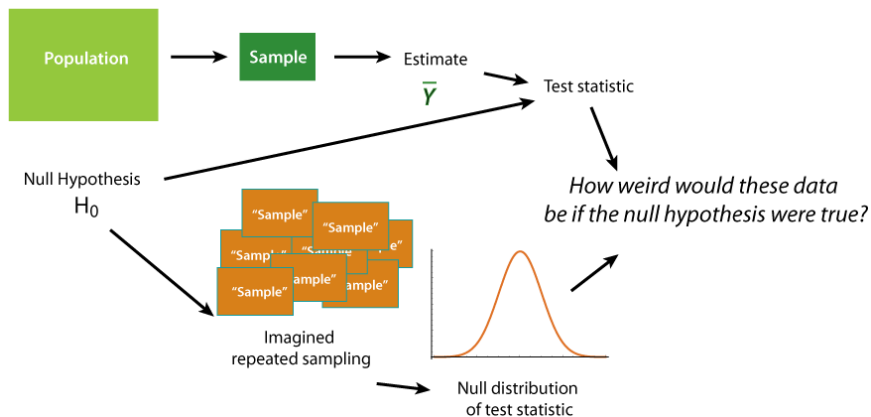


Hypothesis testing

Chapter 6

Hypothesis testing asks how unusual it is to get data that differ from the null hypothesis.

If the data would be quite unlikely under H_0 , we reject H_0 .



Hypotheses are about populations, but are tested with data from samples

Hypothesis testing usually assumes that sampling is random.

Null hypothesis: a specific statement about a population parameter made for the purposes of argument.

Alternate hypothesis: represents all other possible parameter values except that stated in the null hypothesis.

A good null hypothesis would be interesting if proven wrong.

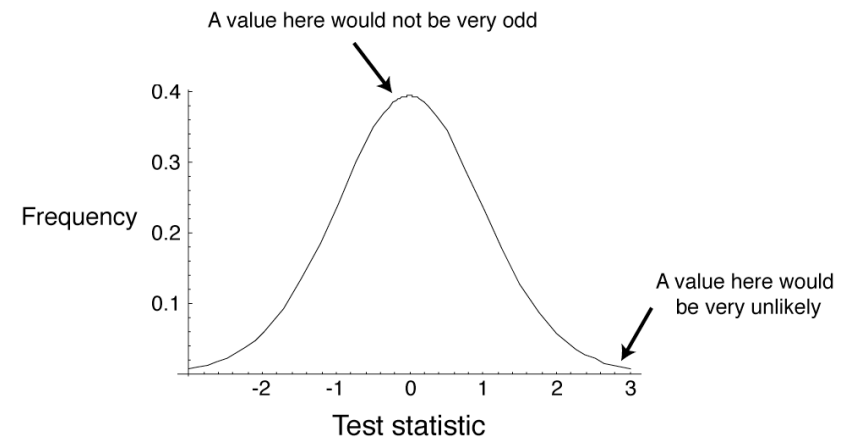
The *null hypothesis* is usually the simplest statement, whereas the *alternative hypothesis* is usually the statement of greatest interest.

A null hypothesis is specific;
an alternate hypothesis is not.

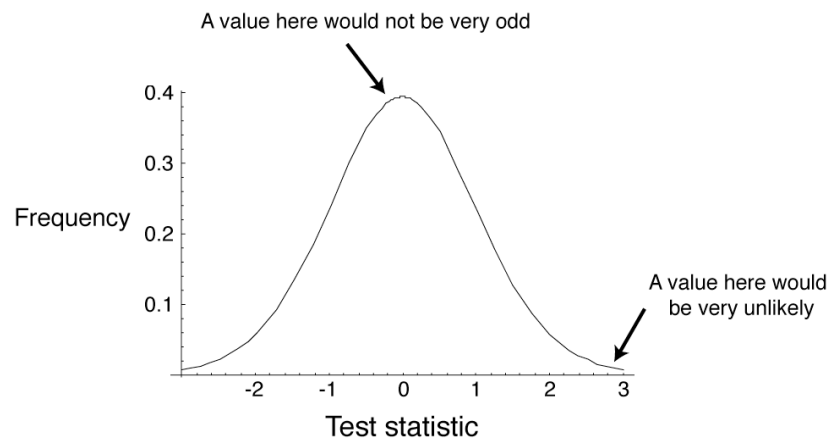
Test Statistic

A number calculated to represent the match between a set of data and the null hypothesis

Can be compared to a general distribution to infer probability

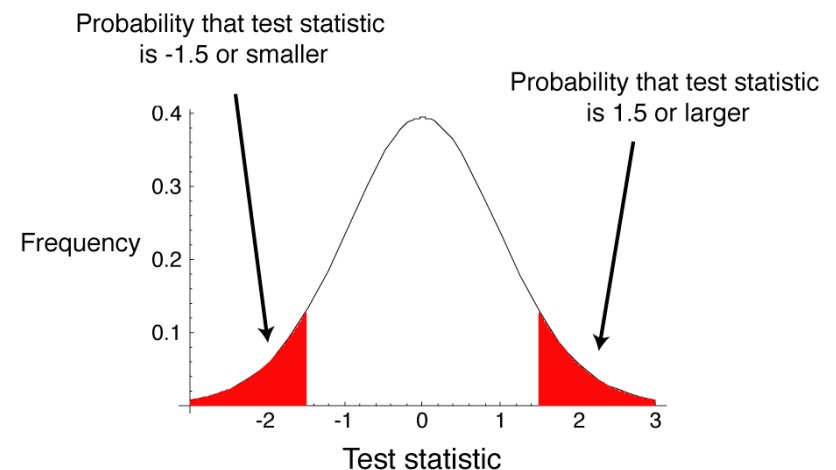


Possible outcomes from samples under null hypothesis



A test statistic summarizes the match between the data and the null hypothesis

P-value



How to find P -values

Simulation

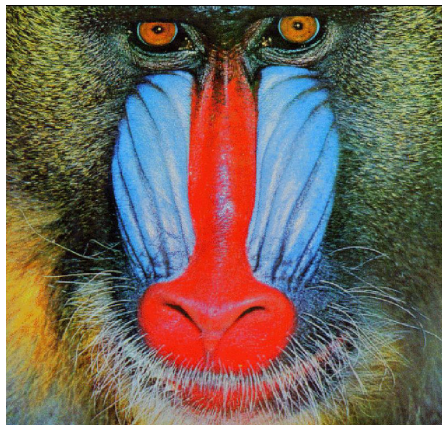
Parametric tests

Permutation

A P -value is the probability of getting the data, or something as or more unusual, if the null hypothesis were true.

Hypothesis testing: an example

Does a red shirt help win wrestling?



The experiment and the results

Animals use red as a sign of aggression

Does red influence the outcome of wrestling, taekwondo, and boxing?

- 16 of 20 rounds had more red-shirted than blue-shirted winners in these sports in the 2004 Olympics
- Shirt color was randomly assigned

Stating the hypotheses

H_0 : Red- and blue-shirted athletes are equally likely to win (*proportion* = 0.5).

H_A : Red- and blue-shirted athletes are not equally likely to win (*proportion* \neq 0.5).

Is this discrepancy by chance alone?:

Estimating the probability of such an extreme result

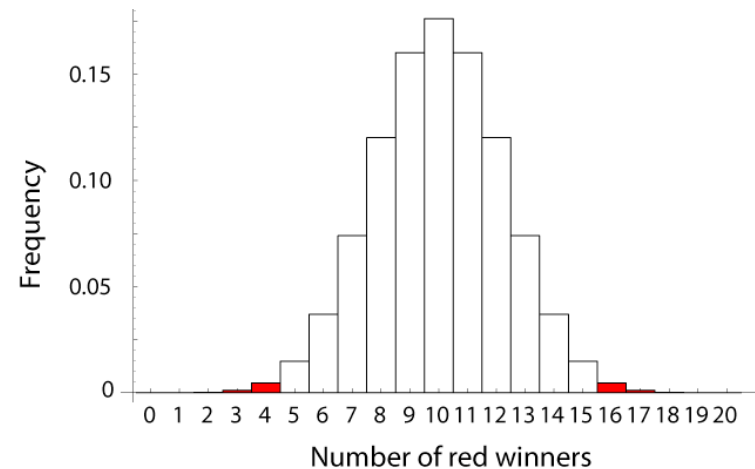
The *null distribution* for a test statistic is the probability distribution of alternative outcomes when a random sample is taken from a population corresponding to the null expectation.

Estimating the value

16 of 20 is a proportion of *proportion* = 0.8

This is a discrepancy of 0.3 from the proportion proposed by the null hypothesis, *proportion* = 0.5

The null distribution of the *sample* number of red wins



Calculating the P -value from the null distribution

The P -value is calculated as

$$P = 2 \times [\text{Pr}(16) + \text{Pr}(17) + \text{Pr}(18) + \text{Pr}(19) + \text{Pr}(20)] = 0.012.$$

α is often 0.05

Statistical significance

The significance level, α , is a probability used as a criterion for rejecting the null hypothesis.

If the P -value for a test is less than or equal to α , then the null hypothesis is rejected.

Significance for the red shirt example

$$P = 0.012$$

$P < \alpha$, so we can reject the null hypothesis

Athletes in red shirts were more likely to win.

Larger samples give more information

A larger sample will tend to give an estimate with a smaller confidence interval

A larger sample will give more power to reject a false null hypothesis

Sample R code for doing this simulation

(Note: This is not the most efficient code for this!)

```
binarySample = function(n, prob){
  results = rep(NA,n)
  for(i in 1:n){
    if(runif(1) < prob) results[i] = "red"
    else
      results[i] = "blue"
  }
  length(which(results=="red"))
}

numreps=10000
resultsDF = data.frame(numberRedWins =
  replicate(numreps, binarySample(20,.5)))
```

Hypothesis testing: another example

Do dogs resemble their owners?



Common wisdom holds that dogs resemble their owners. Is this true?

41 dog owners approached in parks; photos taken of dog and owner separately

Photo of owner and dog, along with another photo of dog, shown to students to match

Hypotheses

H_0 : The proportion of correct matches is *proportion* = 0.5.

H_A : The proportion of correct matches is different from *proportion* = 0.5.

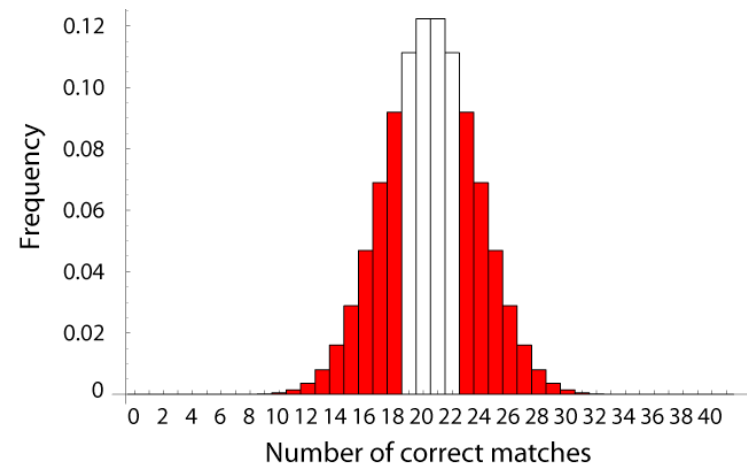
Estimating the proportion

$$\text{sample proportion} = \frac{23}{41} = 0.56$$

Data

Of 41 matches, 23 were correct and 18 were incorrect.

Null distribution for dog/owner resemblance



The P -value:

$$P = 0.53$$

We do not reject the null hypothesis that dogs do not resemble their owners.

Jargon

Significance level

The acceptable probability of rejecting a true null hypothesis

Called α

For many purposes, $\alpha = 0.05$ is acceptable. α is somewhat arbitrarily chosen by researchers.

Type I error

Rejecting a true null hypothesis

Probability of Type I error is α (the significance level)

Type II error

Not rejecting a false null hypothesis

The probability of a Type II error is β .

The smaller β , the more *power* a test has.

Power increases with more information (i.e. with larger sample size)

Power

The ability of a test to reject a false null hypothesis

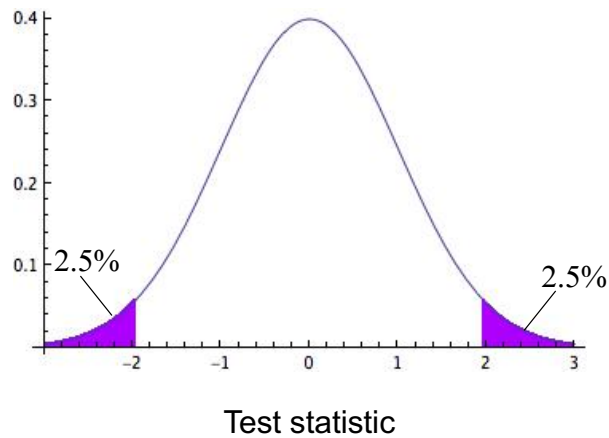
$$\text{Power} = 1 - \beta$$

One- and two-tailed tests

Most tests are *two-tailed tests*.

This means that a deviation in either direction would reject the null hypothesis.

Normally α is divided into $\alpha/2$ on one side and $\alpha/2$ on the other.



One-tailed tests

Only used when the other tail is nonsensical

For example, comparing grades on a multiple choice test to that expected by random guessing

Critical value

The value of a test statistic beyond which the null hypothesis can be rejected

We never “accept the null hypothesis”

“Statistically significant”

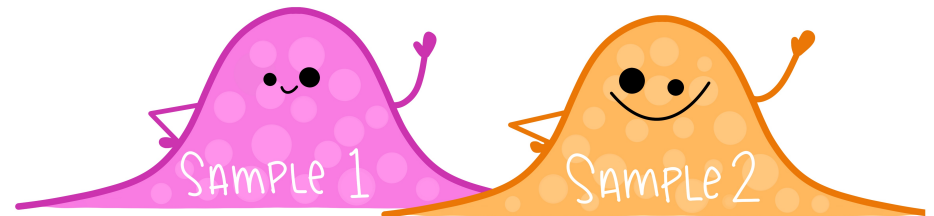
$$P < \alpha$$

We can “reject the null hypothesis”

2-SAMPLE T-TESTS

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teaching assistants:



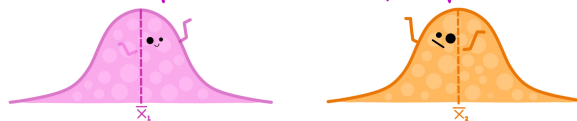
Artwork by @allison_horst <https://github.com/allisonhorst/stats-illustrations>

LET'S START HERE: if random samples are drawn from populations w/ the same mean...

Then it is more likely that the 2 sample means (i.e. the same population) will be close together...



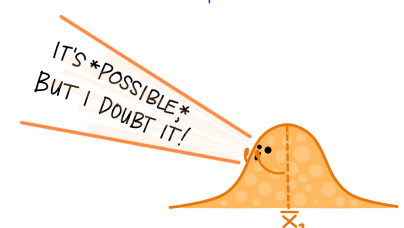
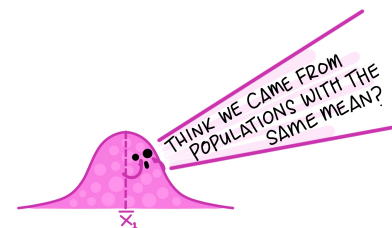
...and it is less likely (but always possible!) that the sample means will be far apart.



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in OTHER WORDS... The more different the sample means are,* the less likely it is they were drawn from populations w/ the same mean.
*(when taking into account sample spread + size)
‡ assuming we've randomly sampled

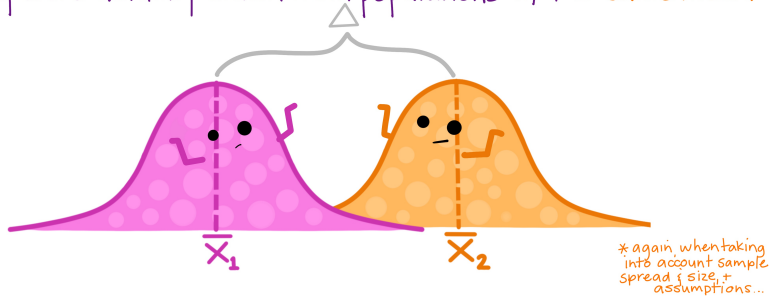


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So for our 2 random samples, we ask:

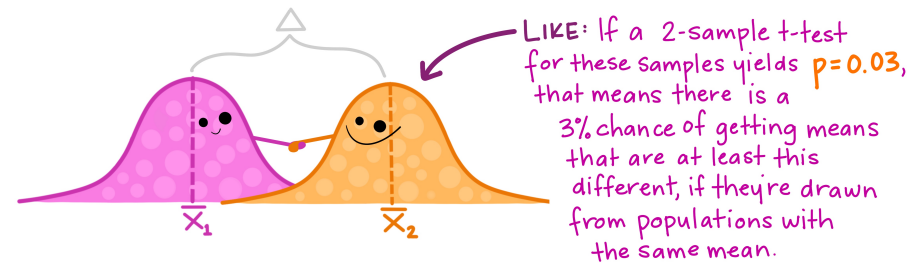
WHAT IS THE PROBABILITY OF GETTING 2 SAMPLE MEANS THAT ARE AT LEAST THIS DIFFERENT,* if they were actually drawn from populations w/ the same mean?



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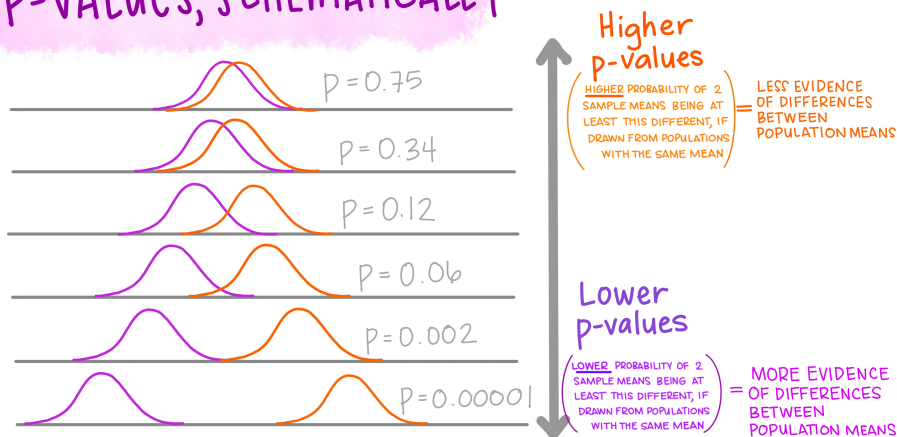
That's our p-value!

WHAT IS THE PROBABILITY OF GETTING 2 SAMPLE MEANS THAT ARE AT LEAST THIS DIFFERENT, if they were actually drawn from populations w/ the same mean?



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P-VALUES, SCHEMATICALLY:



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Question:

WHEN DO WE HAVE ENOUGH EVIDENCE TO SAY THERE IS A SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE?

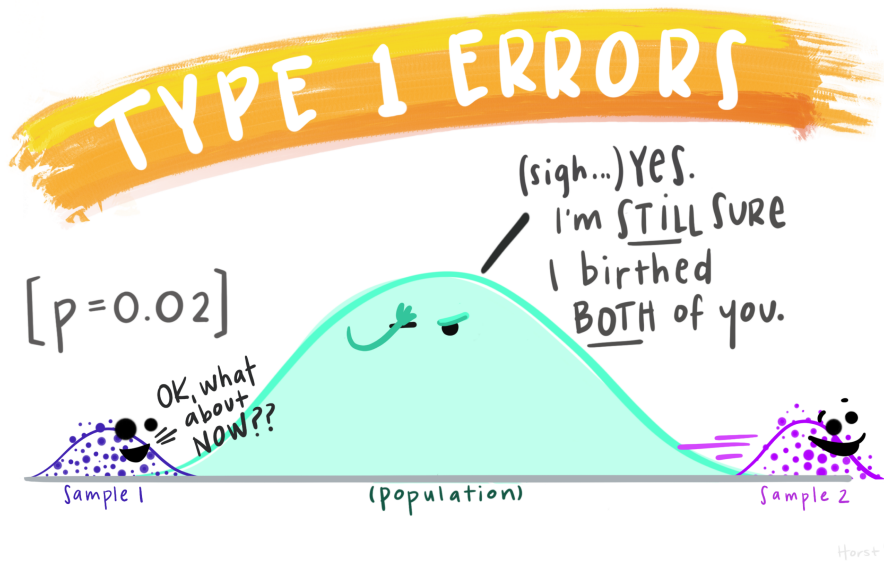
Answer:

WHEN OUR P-VALUE IS BELOW OUR SELECTED SIGNIFICANCE LEVEL (α), USUALLY (BUT NOT ALWAYS) = 0.05.

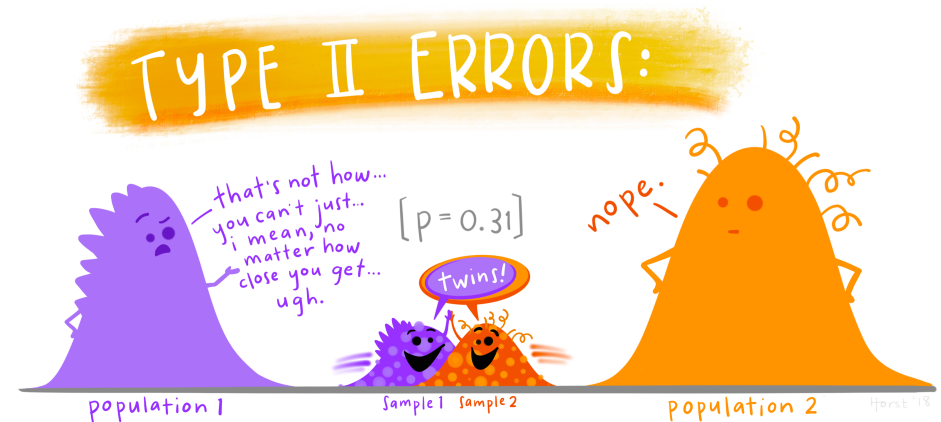
Which means:

IF THE PROBABILITY (p-value) OF FINDING AT LEAST OUR DIFFERENCE IN SAMPLE MEANS (IF THEY WERE DRAWN FROM POPULATIONS WITH THE SAME MEANS) IS LESS THAN 5%, THAT'S ENOUGH EVIDENCE FOR US TO DECIDE THEY ARE LIKELY FROM POPULATIONS WITH UNEQUAL MEANS.

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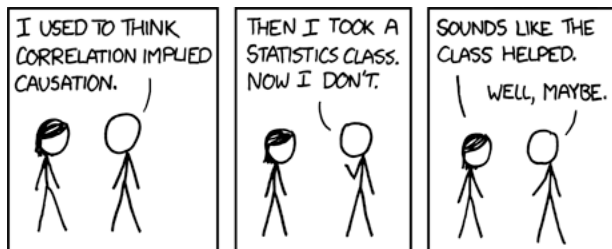
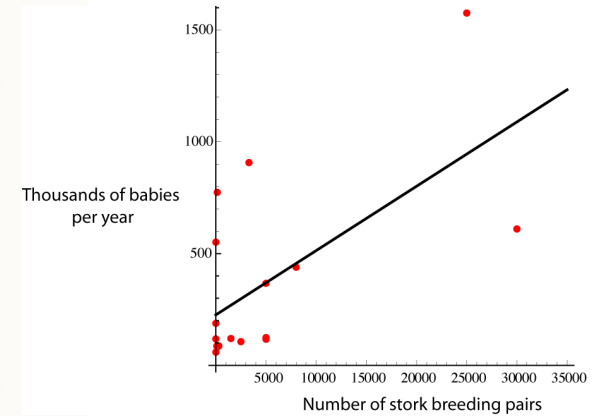
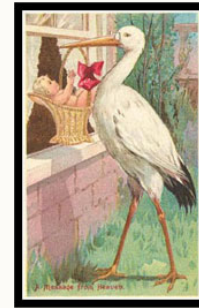
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Statistical significance \neq Biological importance

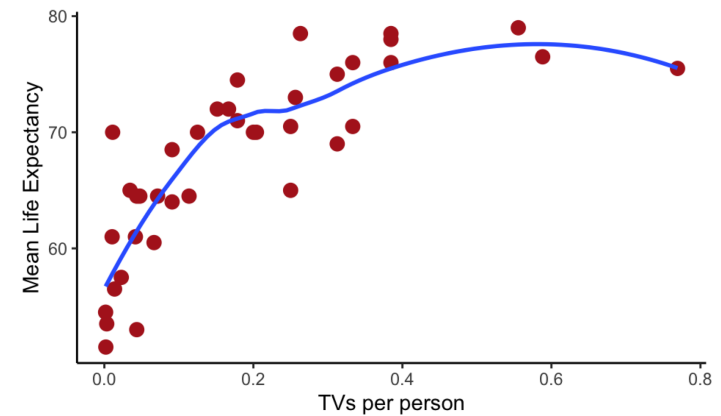
	Important	Unimportant
Significant	<p>Polio vaccine reduces incidence of polio</p>	<p>Things you don't care about, or already well known things:</p> 
Insignificant	<p>Small study shows a possible effect, leading to larger study which finds significance.</p> <p>or</p> <p>Large study showing no effect of drug that was thought to be beneficial.</p>	<p>Studies with small sample size and high P-value</p> <p>or</p> <p>Things you don't care about</p>

Correlation does not automatically imply causation

Correlation does not automatically imply causation



Life expectancy by country:



Confounding variable

An unmeasured variable
that may be the cause of
both X and Y

Observations vs.
Experiments