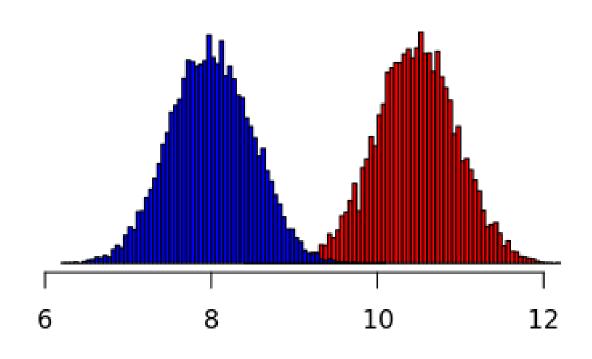
Parametric hypothesis tests continued



Overview

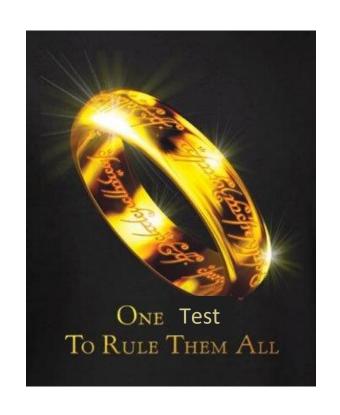
Quick review and extensions of parametric and nonparametric tests

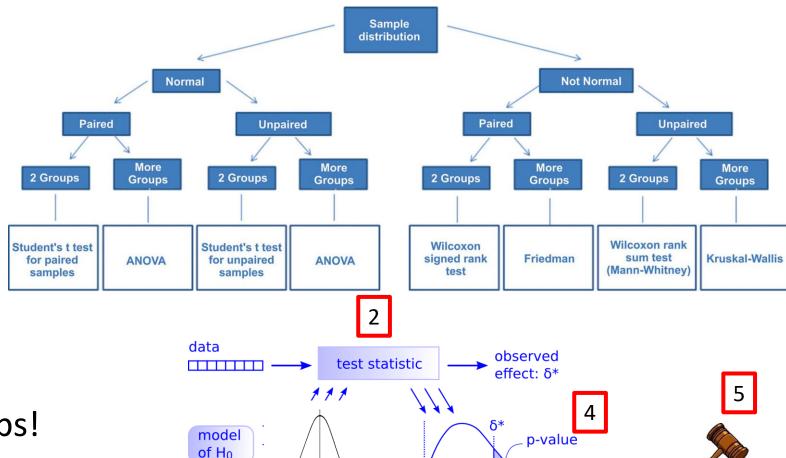
Theories of hypothesis testing

Hypothesis tests for a single mean and connections between hypothesis tests and confidence intervals

Randomization and parametric hypothesis tests

The big picture: There is only one hypothesis test!





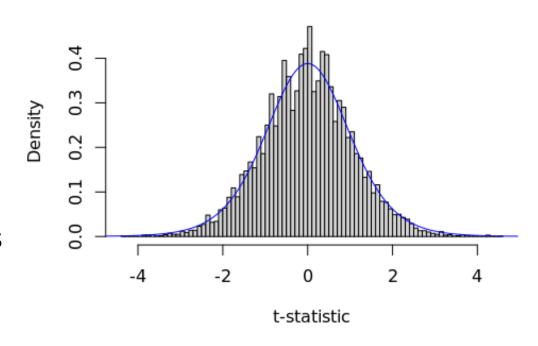
distribution of δ under H₀

Just need to follow 5 steps!

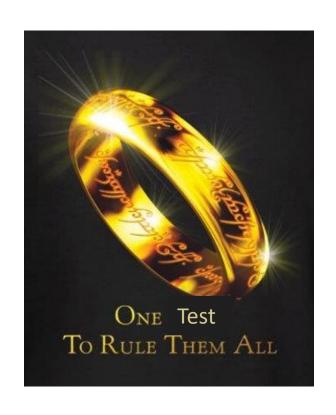
Randomization and parametric hypothesis tests

The difference between randomization/permutation tests and parametric hypothesis tests is in how the null distribution is created (step 3):

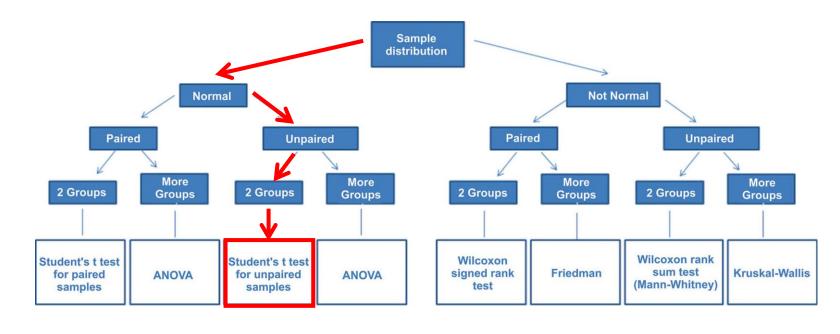
- Randomization/permutation tests the null distribution is created through computational simulations
- In parametric tests, the null distribution is created using a parametric probability distribution



The big picture: There is only one hypothesis test!

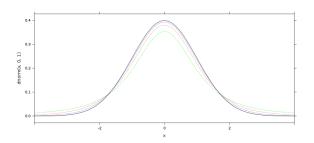


The hypothesis test zoo

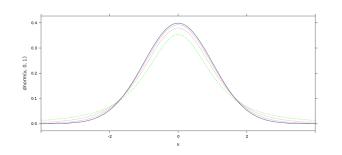


We can run a large number of additional hypothesis tests by following the 5 steps!

$$t = \frac{\bar{x}_t - \bar{x}_t}{s_p \cdot \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_t} + \frac{1}{n_c}}}$$



t-tests for comparing two means



Students' t-test assumes the variance in each population is the same, and uses an SE estimate of:

$$\hat{SE}_{\bar{x}_t - \bar{x}_c} = s_p \cdot \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_t} + \frac{1}{n_c}} \qquad s_p = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i}^{n_t} (x_i - \bar{x}_c)^2 + \sum_{j}^{n_c} (x_j - \bar{x}_c)^2}{n_t + n_c - 2}} \qquad \qquad t = \frac{\bar{x}_t - \bar{x}_t}{s_p \cdot \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_t} + \frac{1}{n_c}}}$$

Welch's t-test does **not** assume that the variance in each population is the same and uses an estimate of:

$$\hat{SE}_{\bar{x}_t - \bar{x}_c} = \sqrt{\frac{s_t^2}{n_t} + \frac{s_c^2}{n_c}} \qquad t = \frac{\bar{x}_t - \bar{x}_c}{\sqrt{\frac{s_t^2}{n_t} + \frac{s_c^2}{n_c}}}$$

Since we have SE estimates, we can compute confidence intervals:

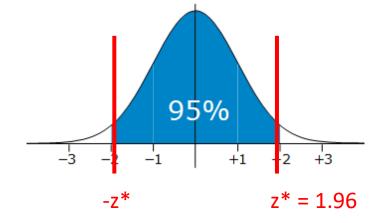
$$Cl_{95} \approx \text{stat } \pm 2 \cdot \text{SE}$$

Confidence interval for the difference of two means

Confidence intervals for the bootstrap had the form:

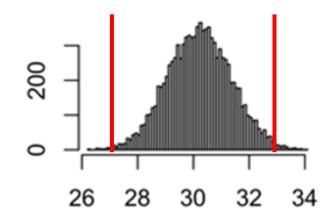
$$Cl_{95} \approx \text{stat } \pm 2 \cdot SE^*$$

qnorm(.975) = 1.96



<u>Side note</u>: one can also calculate 95% bootstrap confidence intervals using:

quantile(bootstrap_distribution, c(.025, .975))

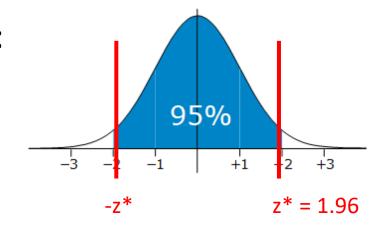


Confidence interval for the difference of two means

Confidence intervals for the bootstrap had the form:

$$Cl_{95} \approx \text{stat } \pm 2 \cdot SE^*$$

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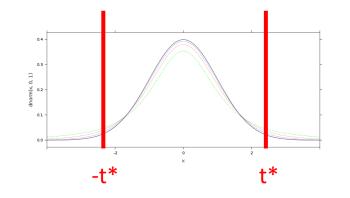


When creating confidence intervals using t-statistics we use:

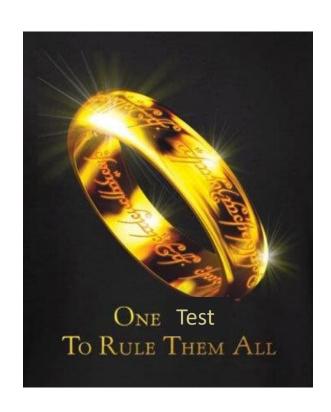
df = min(n_t, n_c) - 1
$$\frac{\text{Cl}_{95} \approx \text{statistic} \pm \text{t*} \cdot \hat{SE}}{\text{qt(.975, df)}}$$

$$\hat{SE}_{\bar{x}_t - \bar{x}_c} = \sqrt{\frac{s_t^2}{n_t} + \frac{s_c^2}{n_c}}$$

For a difference of means: $CI = (\overline{x}_t - \overline{x}_c) \pm t^* \cdot \sqrt{\frac{s_t^2}{n_t} + \frac{s_c^2}{n_c}}$

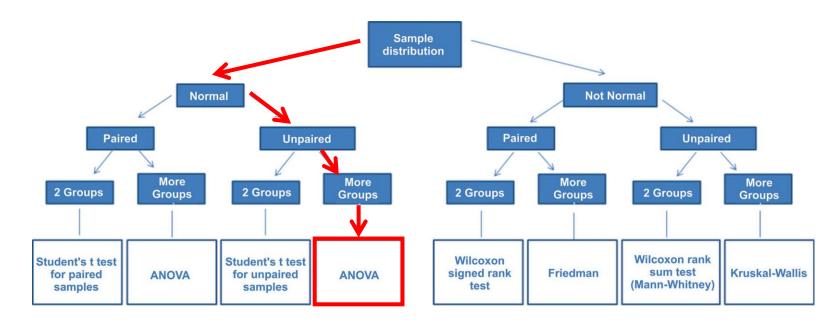


The big picture: There is only one hypothesis test!



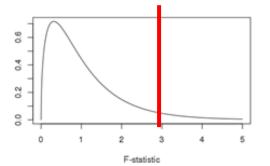
We can run a large number of additional hypothesis tests by following the 5 steps!

The hypothesis test zoo

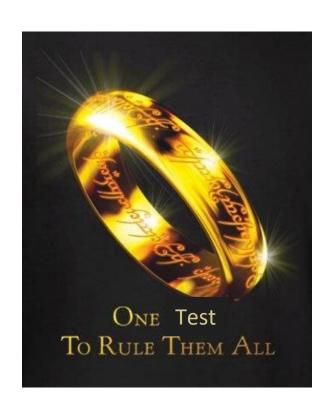


ANOVA: H_0 : $\mu_1 = \mu_2 = ... = \mu_k$

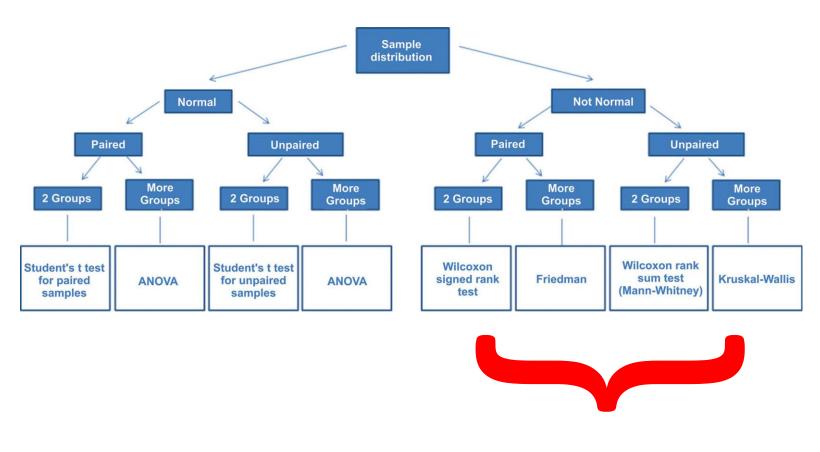
$$F = \frac{\frac{1}{K-1} \sum_{i=1}^{K} n_i (\bar{x}_i - \bar{x}_{tot})^2}{\frac{1}{N-K} \sum_{i=1}^{K} \sum_{j=1}^{n_i} (x_{ij} - \bar{x}_i)^2}$$



The big picture: There is only one hypothesis test!



The hypothesis test zoo



We can run a large number of additional hypothesis tests by following the 5 steps!

Nonparametric hypothesis tests

Brief mention: nonparametric hypothesis tests

Nonparametric hypothesis tests use null distributions that do not have a small fixed set of parameters

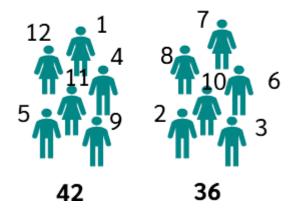
Most nonparametric tests are based on converting the data to ranks

- E.g., Mann-Whitney U test/Wilcoxon rank-sum test
 - Tests whether the probability of X being greater than Y is equal to the probability of Y being greater than X.
 - (where X and Y come from two populations)

Nonparametric tests have fewer assumptions than parametric tests so they are potentially more robust

• e.g., they do not assume the data comes from a normal distribution, they are resistant to outliers, etc.

Mann-Whitney U Test
Is there a difference in the rank sum?

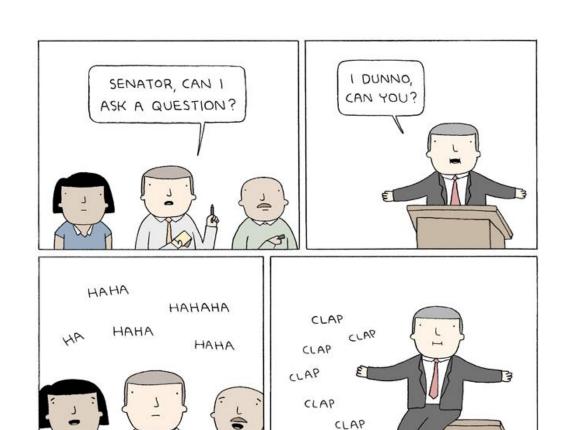


Questions

Question: When running a hypothesis test, is it better to...

1. Report the actual p-value

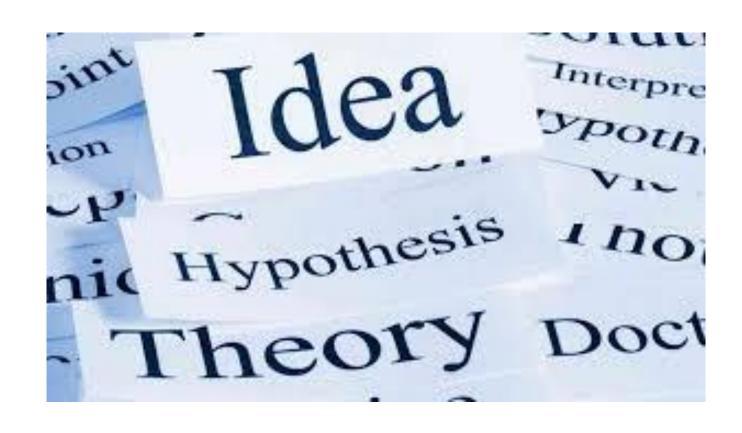
2. Just report if we reject/fail to reject the null hypothesis at the α = 0.05 significance level?



CLAP

poorlydrawnlines.com

Theories of hypothesis tests



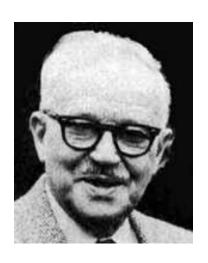
Two theories of hypothesis testing

Null-hypothesis significance testing (NHST) is a hybrid of two theories:

- 1. Significance testing of Ronald Fisher
- 2. Hypothesis testing of Jezy Neyman and Egon Pearson



Fisher (1890-1962)



Neyman (1894-1981)



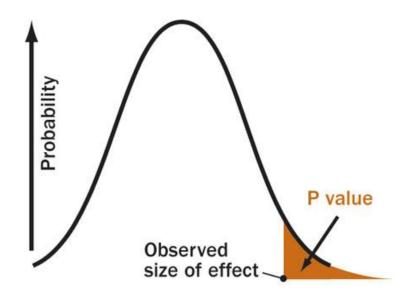
Pearson (1895-1980)

Ronald Fisher's significance testing

Views the p-value as strength of evidence against the null hypothesis

• p-values part of an on-going scientific process:

They tell the experimenter "what results to ignore"



Neyman-Pearson null hypothesis testing

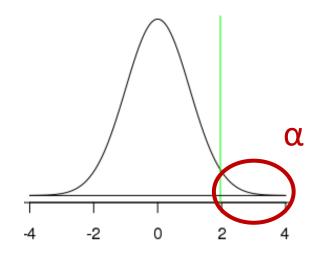
Makes *a formal decision* in statistical tests

Reject H₀: if the observed sample statistic is beyond a fixed value

• i.e., reject H_0 if the p-value is less than some predetermined **significance level** α

Do not reject H₀: if the observed sample statistic is not beyond a fixed value. This means the test is inconclusive.

Null distribution





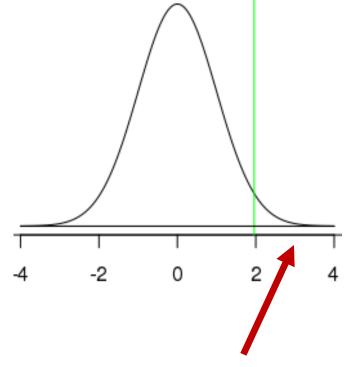
Neyman-Pearson frequentist logic

Type I error: incorrectly rejecting the null hypothesis when it is true

If Neyman-Pearson null hypothesis testing paradigm was followed perfectly, then only $^{\sim}5\%$ of the time would we falsely report an effect when null hypothesis was actually true (for $\alpha = 0.05$)

• i.e., we would only make type I errors 5% of the time

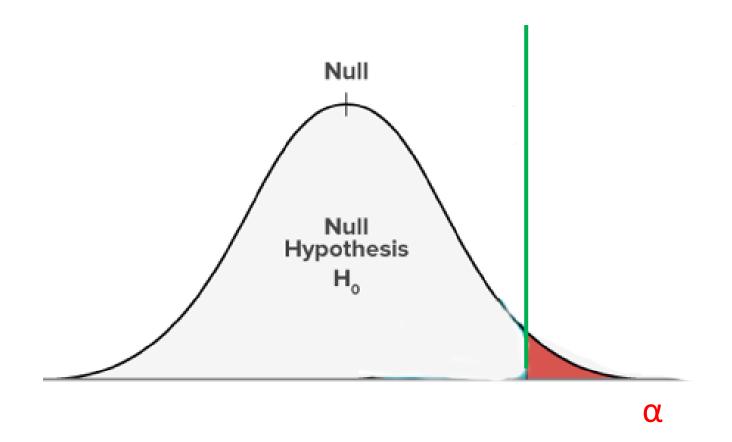
Null distribution



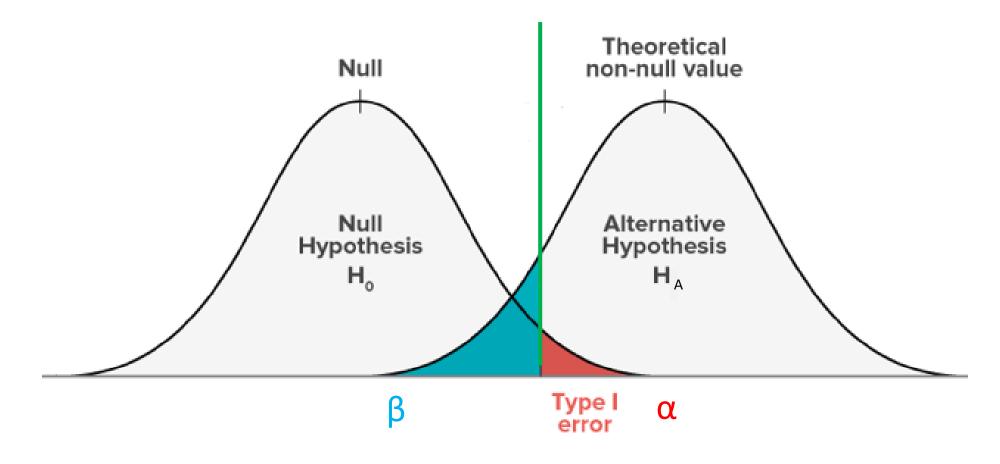
The null distribution is true but statistic landed here



Neyman-Pearson Frequentist logic



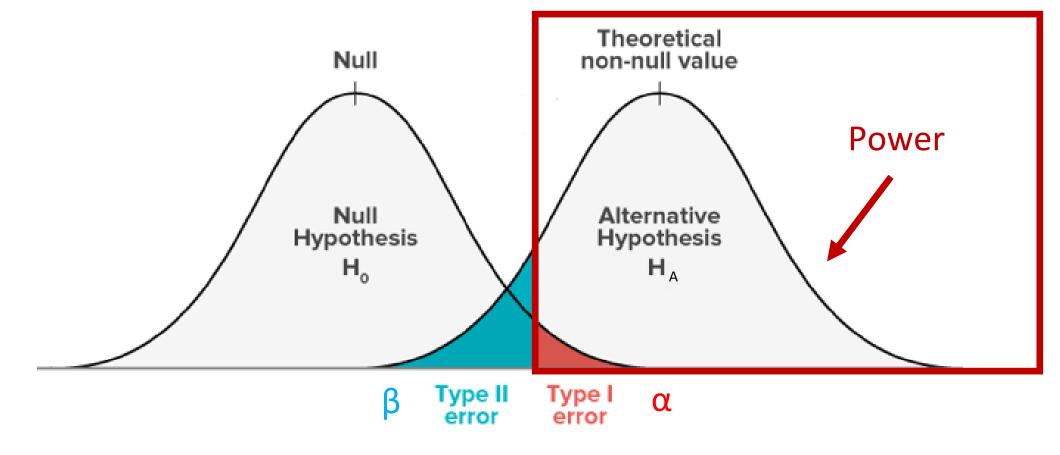
Neyman-Pearson Frequentist logic



Type II error: incorrectly rejecting failing to reject H₀ when it is false

• The rate at which we make type II errors is often denoted with the symbol β

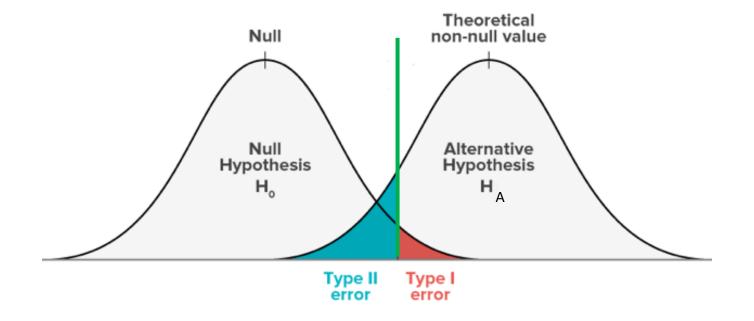
Neyman-Pearson Frequentist logic



The **power** of a test is the probability we reject the H₀ when it is **false**

- 1 β
- For a fixed α level, it would be best to use the most powerful test

Type I and Type II Errors

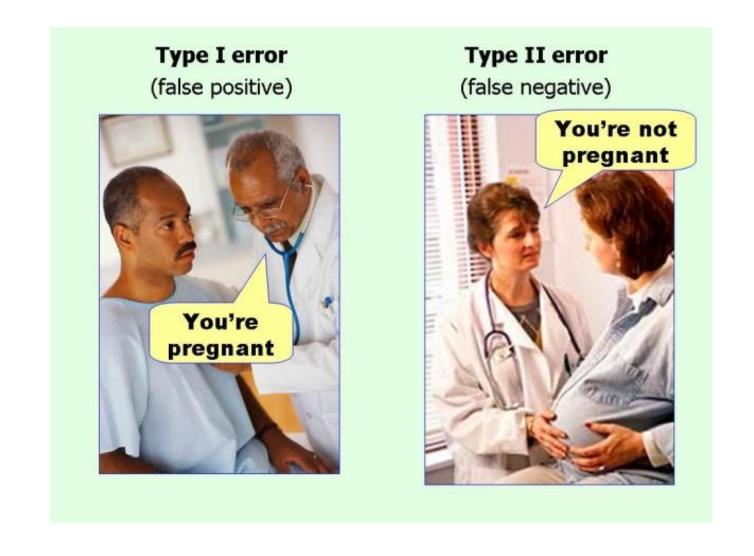


Decision

	Reject H _o	Do not reject H ₀
H _o is true	Type I error (α) (false positive)	No error

Truth

Type I and Type II Errors



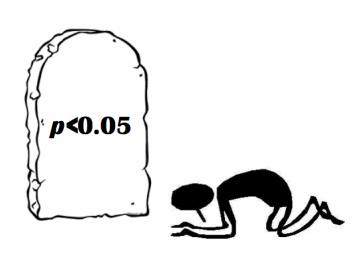
Problems with the NP hypothesis tests

<u>Problem 1</u>: we are interested in the results of a specific experiment, not whether we are right most of the time

- E.g., 95% of these statements are false:
 - Joy can't smell Parkinson's disease, Lawyers are left-handed at the same rate as the general population, Calcium is not beneficial for your heart, ...

<u>Problem 2</u>: Arbitrary thresholds for alpha levels

• P-value = 0.051, we don't reject H_0



Collectively Unconscious

News from the Frontiers of Science



NOVEMBER 3, 2012

New version SPSS will include 'celebratory fireworks' for significant results



An official press release has confirmed that the newest release of SPSS will be equipped with 'performance-rewarding features'. The new installment of the popular data-analysis package will light up with song, dance and fireworks whenever a statistical test is significant. 'We want to provide a package that is in line with the day-to-day experiences of researchers. We understand the pressure the publish, and the relief that is felt by many when those Stars of Significance appear in the results table.'

The level of significance will determine the abundance of the celebrations. If the *p*-value is below 0.05, researchers will automatically hear what is described as 'a cheerful tone', according to a company spokesman. "But if

your p-value is below 0.01, the software package will play a series of congratulatory videos, complimenting your

SUBTITLE

Q

RECENT POSTS

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- Matrix dimensions reach agreement at peace summit
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- Scientists receive 12.6 million dollar grant to format references correctly

ARCHIVES

Problems with the NP hypothesis tests

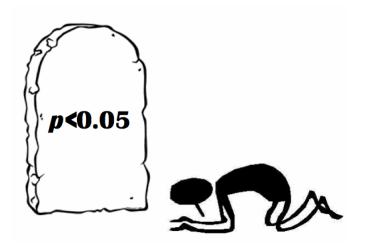
<u>Problem 1</u>: we are interested in the results of a specific experiment, not whether we are right most of the time

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<u>Problem 2</u>: Arbitrary thresholds for alpha levels

• P-value = 0.051, we don't reject H_0 ?

<u>Problem 3</u>: running many tests can give rise to a high number of type I errors



Genes and leukemia example

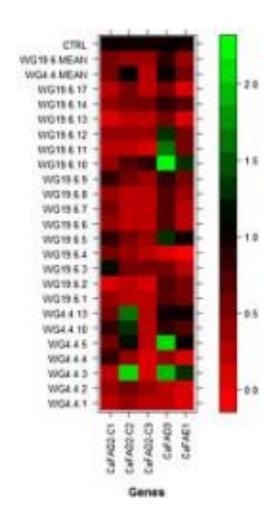
Scientists collected 7129 gene expression levels from 38 patients to find genetic differences between two types leukemia (L1 and L2)

Suppose there was no genetic differences between the types of leukemia

• H_0 : $\mu_{L1} = \mu_{L2}$ is true for all genes

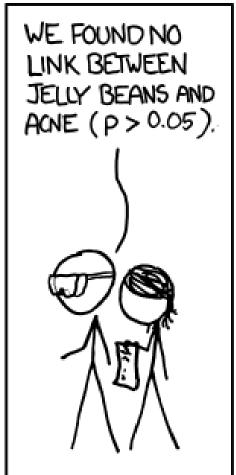
Q: If each gene was tested separately using a significance level of α = 0.05, approximately how many type I errors would be expected?

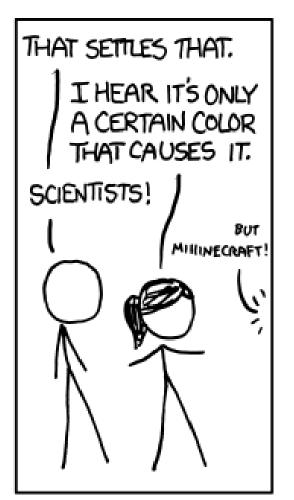
• A: 7129 x 0.05 = 356

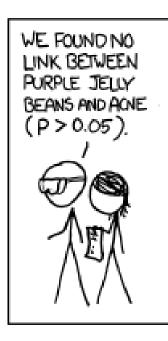


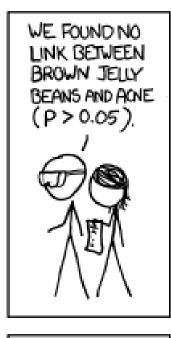
Multiple hypothesis tests

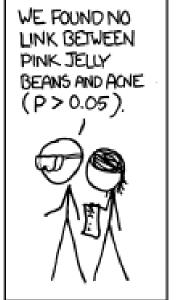


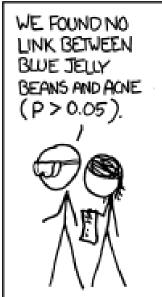


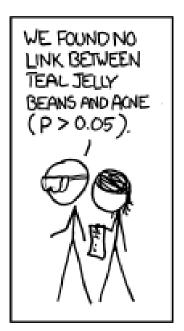


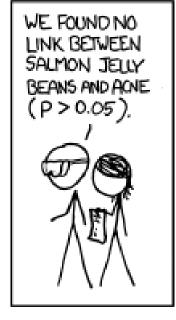


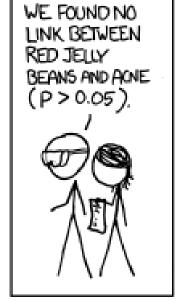


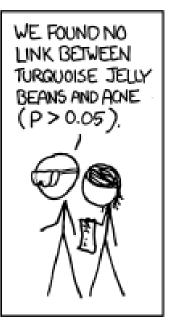


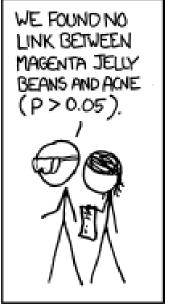




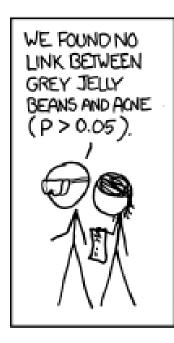


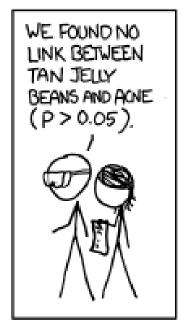


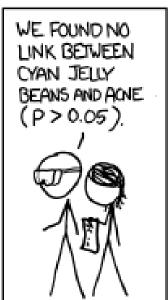




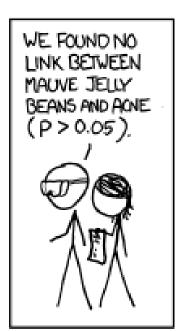


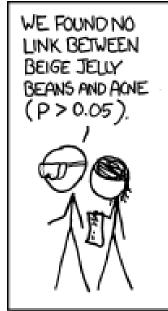


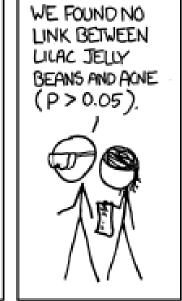


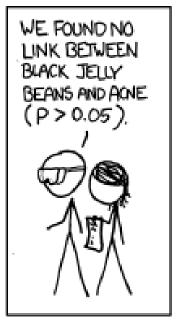


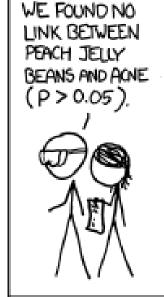


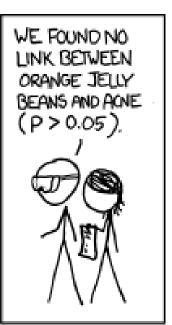














Genes and leukemia example

There are methods that try to correct for running multiple hypothesis tests

The *Bonferroni correction* is one way that controls the probability of *any* hypothesis test giving a type I error

• i.e., controls the familywise error rate (no type I errors for any of the tests run)

It works by dividing the initial α level by the number of tests run

- E.g., $\alpha = 0.05/7129 = 0.000007$
- All p-values need to be below this level to be considered statistically significant
- This can lead to many type II errors
 - (Type II error: failure to reject H₀ when it is false)

The problem of multiple testing

For α = 0.05, ~5% of all published research findings should incorrectly reject the null hypothesis

Publication bias (file drawer effect): Generally positive results are more likely to be published, so if you read the literature, the proportion of incorrect results could be greater than 5%.



Why Most Published Research Findings Are False

John P. A. Ioannidis

The Earth Is Round (p < .05)

Jacob Cohen

After 4 decades of severe criticism, the ritual of null hypothesis significance testing—mechanical dichotomous decisions around a sacred .05 criterion—still persists. This article reviews the problems with this practice, including

sure how to test H_0 , chi-square with Yates's (1951) correction or the Fisher exact test, and wonders whether he has enough power. Would you believe it? And would you believe that if he tried to publish this result without a

American Statistical Association's Statement on p-values

Some thoughts...

Better to have hypothesis tests than none at all. Just need to think carefully and use your judgment.

Report effect size in most cases – i.e., confidence intervals



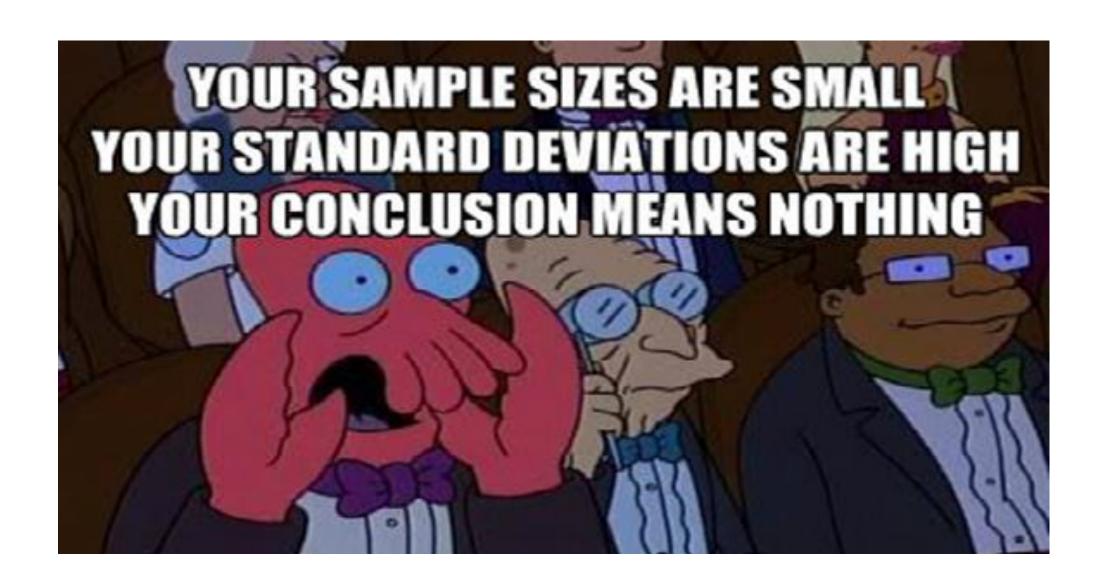
• i.e., report p = 0.23 not p < 0.05

Replicate findings (perhaps in different contexts) to make sure you get the same results

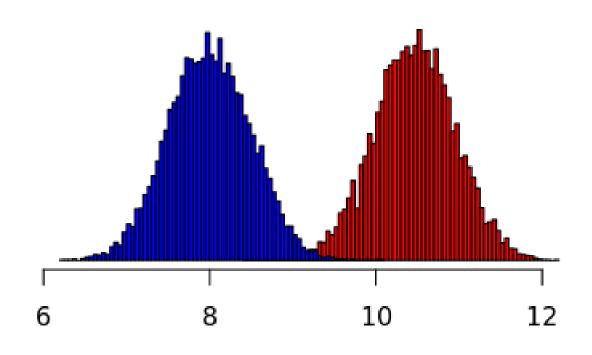
Be a good/honest scientists and try to get at the Truth!



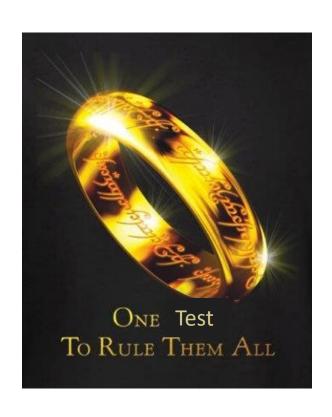




Connections between null, alternative and bootstrap distribution using test of a single mean

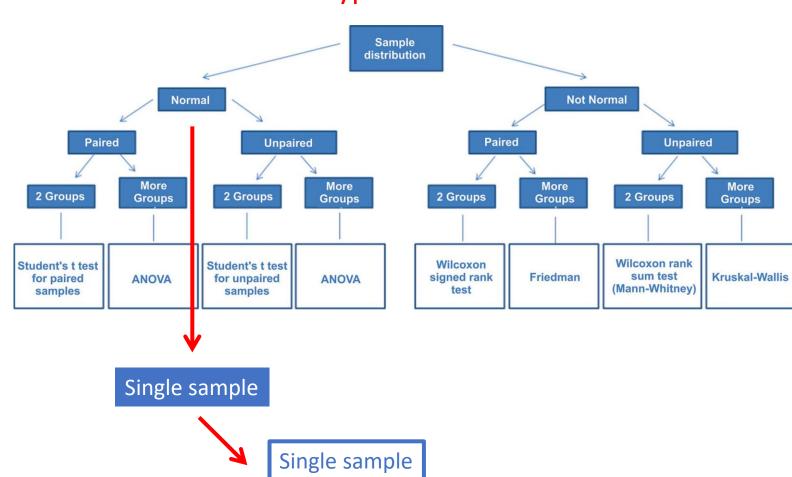


The big picture: There is only one hypothesis test!



We can run a large number of additional hypothesis tests by following the 5 steps!

The hypothesis test zoo



t-test

Example: Do mammals on average sleep more than humans?

According to a data set that comes with the ggplot package, humans sleep 8 hours a day

• (I wish)

The data set also has the sleeping times of 82 other mammals

Let's test if the average sleep time of all mammals is different than 8 hours, based on the sample of 82 mammals.

• (warning: we obviously need to be careful drawing conclusions here because it's not clear whether this is a simple random sample of mammals)



Parametric hypothesis test for a single mean

Step 1: state the null hypothesis:

$$H_0$$
: $\mu = 8$

Step 2: We can use a t-statistic:

$$t = \frac{estimate - param_0}{\hat{SE}}$$

$$\hat{SE} = \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$$

$$t = \frac{\bar{x} - 8}{\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}}$$

$$\bar{x} = 10.46$$

s = 4.47

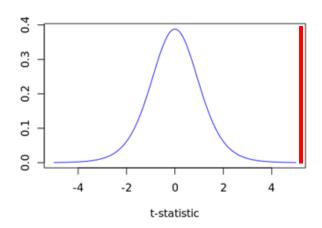
$$n = 82$$

$$s = 4.47$$

$$t = 4.99$$

Note: In a paired samples t-test we subtract the paired values in the two samples and run a one sample t-test on the differences.

Step 3: The null distribution is a t-distribution with n - 1 degrees of freedom



Step 4 and 5... ???

We can also get confidence intervals using:

$$CI = \bar{x} \pm t^* \cdot \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$$

Randomization hypothesis test for a single mean

Step 1: Null hypothesis: H_0 : $\mu = 8$

Step 2: We could use:

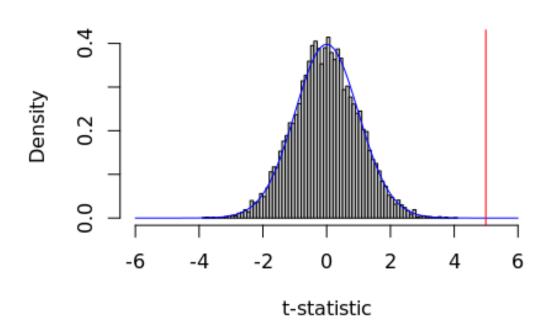
- The mean statistic \bar{x}
- A t-statistic

Step 3: Any ideas how to create one point in our null distribution?

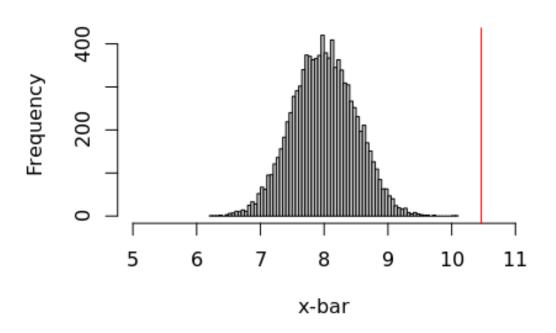
- 1. Modify the original sample by adding a constant to all data points to make the sample mean equal to the null hypothesis parameter value
 - > data sample mean(data sample) + 8
- 2. Sample n points with replacement from the modified sample and calculate a statistic on this resampled data to get one statistic consistent with the null hypothesis
- 3. Repeat 10,000 times

Null distributions

Null distribution using a t-statistic



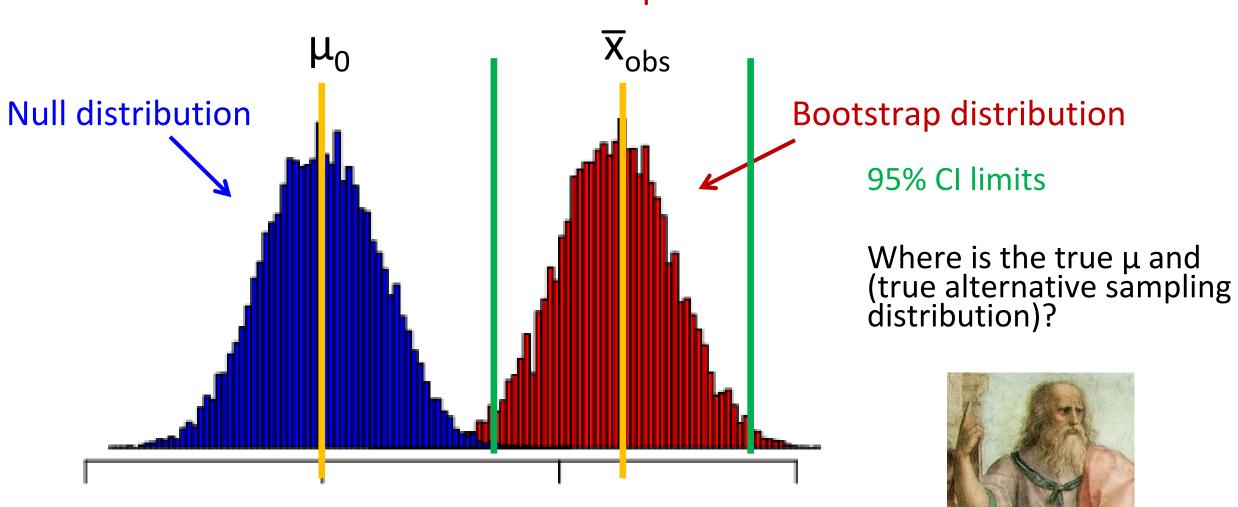
Null distribution using \overline{x} statistic

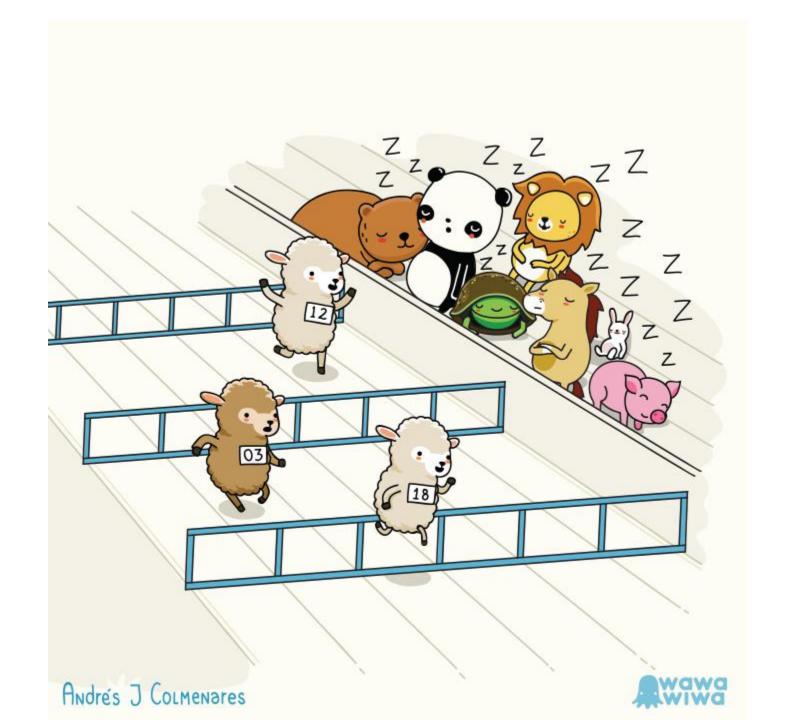


The p-value in both cases is... 0



Relationship between null and bootstrap distributions





Next class: start on the tidyverse...

