

# Module 3D: Hypothesis Testing

**Applied Epistemology:** A Framework for how we know things scientifically

## Agenda:

1.  $H_0/H_A$ : Our model of the test universe (the distribution of the variable)
2. Test & assumptions: are the assumptions met? Is the test valid?
3. Quantitative evidence: **p-value**, or critical value.
  - False positive =Type I ( $\alpha$ ), False Negative = Type II ( $\beta$ ), Type III errors
  - Sensitivity, Specificity, Power → confusion matrix, ROC/AUC curve
  - Positive Predictive Power, Negative Predictive Power
  - Confusion Matrix
  - **ROC/AUC curve**
4. Conclusion & uncertainty/estimation

# What is “Statistical Thinking”?

- Understanding complexity via:
  - Understanding Distributions;
  - Models and their assumptions;
  - Quantification of uncertainty;
  - Thinking in probabilities;
  - Utilizing systematic criteria for decision making.
- Retraining our brains to not rely on heuristics/shortcuts and bias.

- Most of the work involved in statistics is clearly stating your hypothesis
  - What is your expectation? Can you quantify it? What is the sampling distribution?
- Hypothesis testing allows you to ask if a parameter **significantly** differs from the **null** expectation
  - It quantifies how unusual the data are *if you assume that the null hypothesis is true.*
- Hypotheses are about populations but are tested with data from samples
  - Assumes that the sampling is random.
  - (most common inferential statistics are parametric – they assume the sampling distribution follows a normal distribution)

# Your pipeline for hypothesis testing in statistics

Step 1

Formulate your **null hypothesis**

- Null hypothesis is **only hypothesis that is tested**
- Falsification: want to reject your null



Step 2

Identify appropriate **test statistic**

- Assumptions of your test



Step 3

**Quantify** the results of your test

- **P value** or comparison to **critical values**
- How *unusual* is your data?



Step 4

**Conclude: reject or fail to reject**

- based on alpha value
- if appropriate, confidence interval of the parameter

## Hypothesis testing **automates** binary decision making:

1. If  $p\text{-value} < \alpha \rightarrow \text{Reject}$  null hypothesis
2. If  $p\text{-value} > \alpha \rightarrow \text{Fail to reject}$  null hypothesis

- We can outline steps that help us make decisions
- **Remember:** What is statistically significant is somewhat arbitrary:  
 $p\text{-value of 0.04999 is not so different from 0.050001}$

\*  $\alpha$  is also called “**significance level**”. It is defined by the scientist before the experiment that quantifies acceptable levels of being wrong about the conclusion (usually the cut-off is 1 in 20 or 5% or 0.05).

## **Step 1: Making and using hypotheses:**

### **The Null Hypothesis ( $H_0$ ):**

**A specific statement about a population parameter made for the purpose of the argument.** Usually carefully worded so that it can be rejected (falsified).

### **The Alternate Hypothesis ( $H_A$ ):**

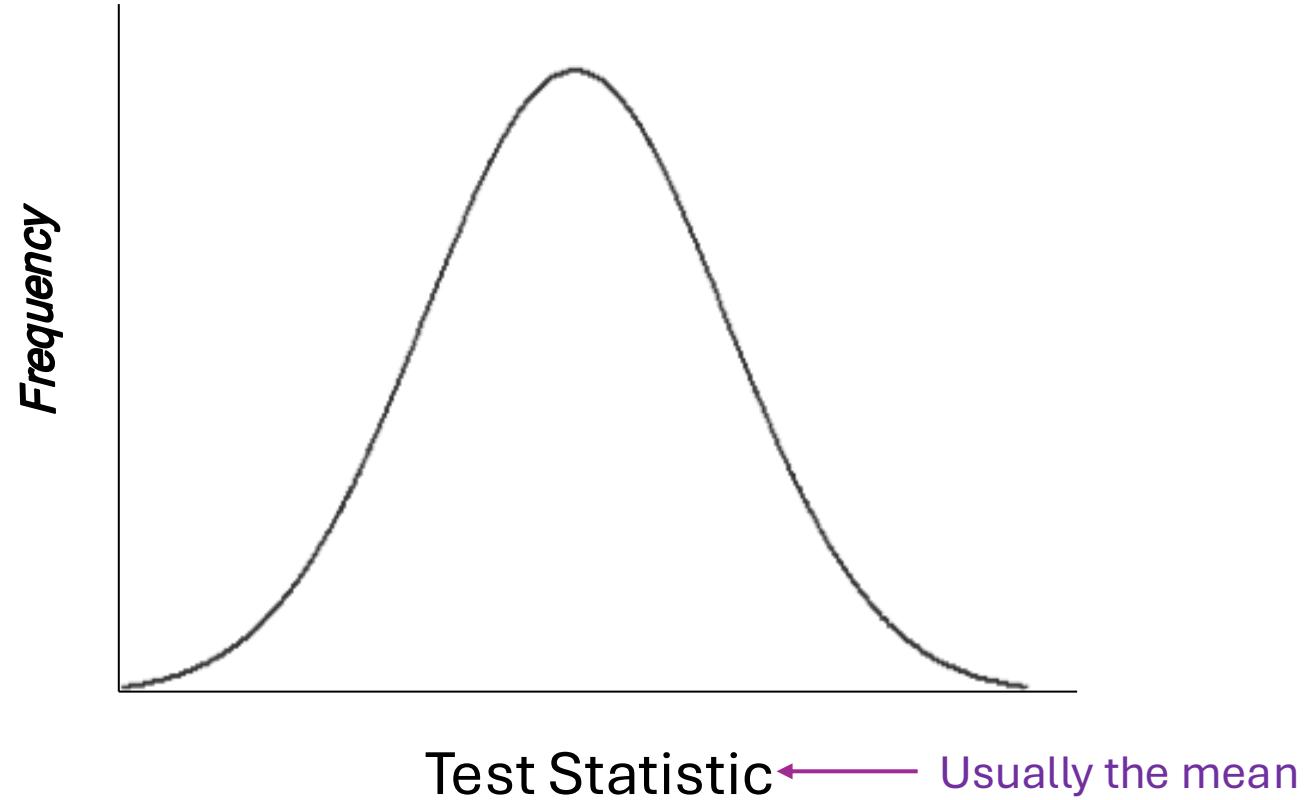
**Represents all other possible parameter values except that stated in  $H_0$ .** It is often what the researcher hopes is true and remains after the  $H_0$  has been rejected.

## H<sub>0</sub>:

- The *only hypothesis actually tested by the data*
- *Usually, the skeptical POV*
  - *Claims NO difference/effect*
  - *Observations are just due to chance*
- *Reject or Fail-To-Reject BUT NEVER EVER accept*
- *Rejecting H<sub>0</sub> reveals nothing about the magnitude of a parameter*

## H<sub>A</sub>:

- Usually, the statement that the researchers *hope* is true



## **Step 2: Identify a Test Statistic:**

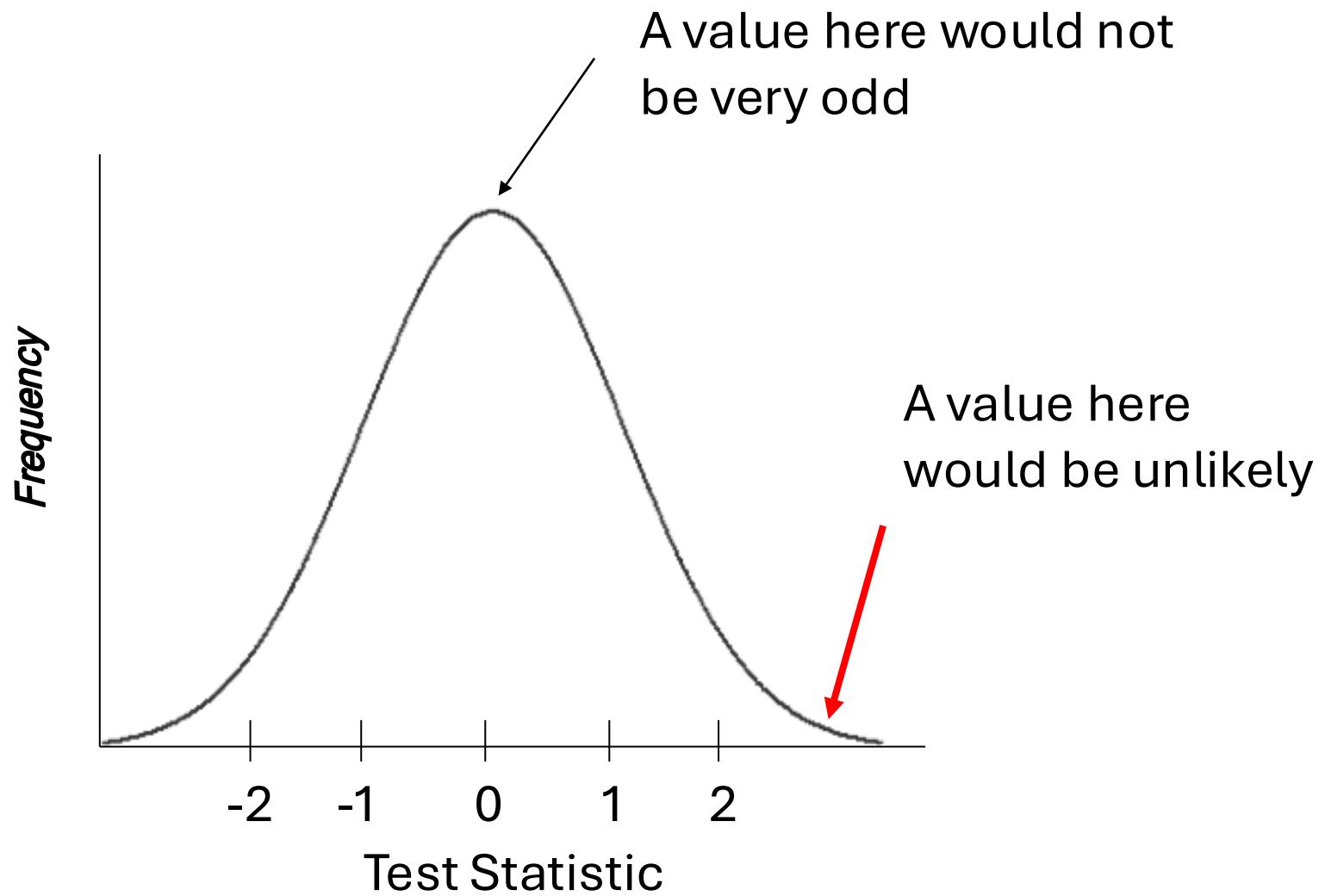
***Quantity calculated from the data that is used to evaluate how compatible the results are with those expected the null hypothesis.***

- How ‘weird’ are your results?
- Do your data support the assumptions of your test statistic?

## **Null Sampling Distribution:**

***Probability of the test statistic assuming the null hypothesis***

- Usually assume Normal Distribution (for means, we can usually rely on CTL!)
- Null distribution can be acquired via computer simulations/modeling



# P-Value:

***Probability of obtaining data that are equal to or even more extreme than the value assuming the null hypothesis is true***

<u>P-VALUE</u>	<u>INTERPRETATION</u>
0.001	
0.01	
0.02	HIGHLY SIGNIFICANT
0.03	
0.04	
0.049	SIGNIFICANT
0.050	OH CRAP. REDO CALCULATIONS.
0.051	ON THE EDGE OF SIGNIFICANCE
0.06	
0.07	HIGHLY SUGGESTIVE,
0.08	SIGNIFICANT AT THE P<0.10 LEVEL
0.09	
0.099	HEY, LOOK AT THIS INTERESTING
≥0.1	SUBGROUP ANALYSIS

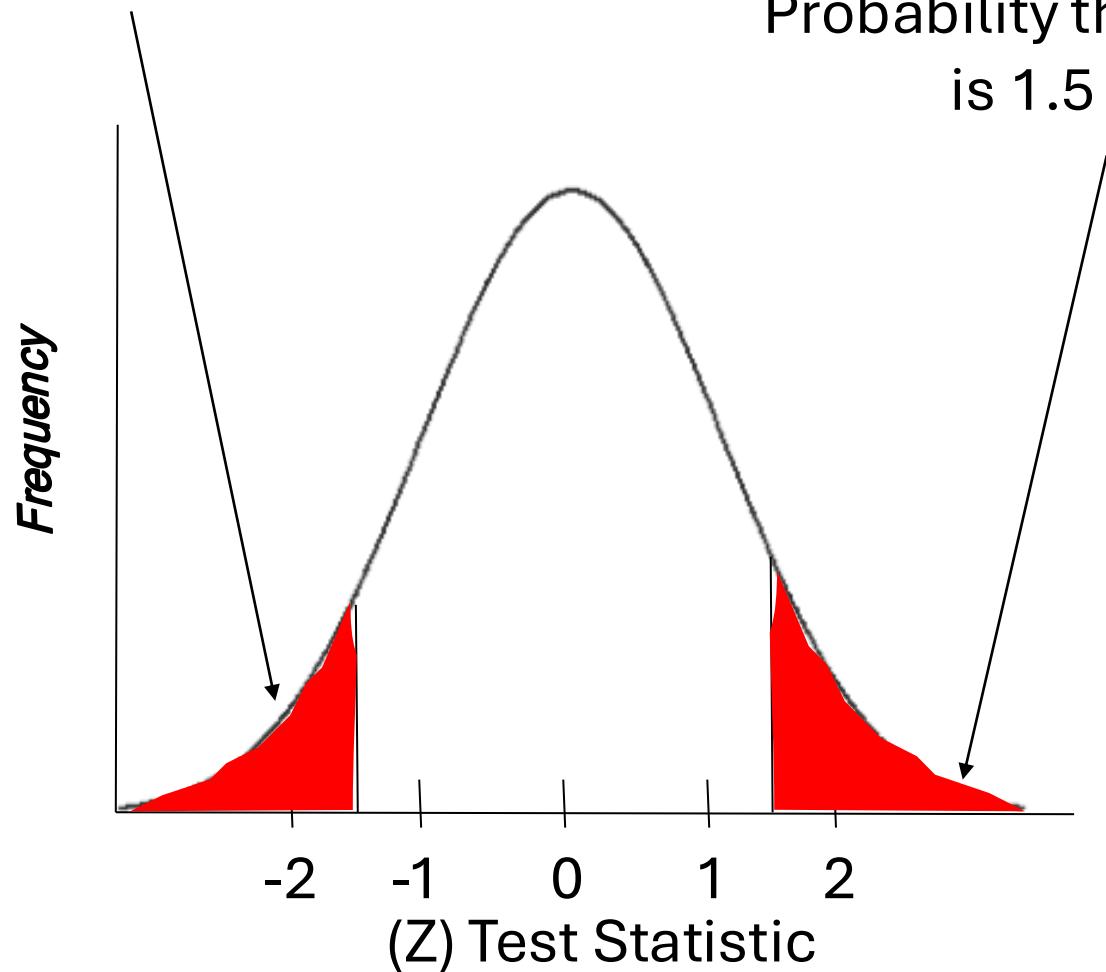
## How are P-values found?

- Parametric tests: calculated in R or Python or use cut-off values in published tables.
- Re-sampling methods: permutation
- Simulation

# P-value

Probability that test statistic  
is -1.5 or smaller

Probability that test statistic  
is 1.5 or bigger



## How do you use a P-value?

In hypothesis testing you can do one of two things:

**Reject or Fail-to-Reject  $H_0$**

## Statistical Significance:

$\alpha$  is used as the basis for rejecting the null hypothesis ( $\alpha$  is set by the experimenter; p-values are calculated from the sample)

*If p-value  $\leq \alpha$ ,  $H_0$  Rejected*

*If p-value  $> \alpha$  FTR  $H_0$*

\*  $\alpha$  is often 0.05

# Hacking p-values: getting the p-value you need to publish your results

- Even well intentioned, honest researchers can accidentally “p-hack”
  - Stopping the study when p-value is significant (**n** individuals) but continuing other studies with more **n** when p-value isn’t yet significant (so you end up with a bias towards studies that have greater **n** and so are more likely to pick up smaller differences)
  - Play with outliers (include or exclude) until a significant p-value is achieved.
  - <https://www.nature.com/articles/d41586-025-01246-1>

## What are possible alternatives to P-values?

<https://royalsocietypublishing.org/doi/10.1098/rsbl.2019.0174>