### Lecture 14: Hypothesis Testing Part I

Chapter 4.3

## Goals for Today

- ► Introduce Hypothesis Testing Framework
- Testing Hypotheses Using Confidence Intervals
- Types of Errors
- ► Testing Hypotheses Using p-Values

# Statistical Hypothesis Testing

#### Example

We flip a coin many times and start to suspect that it is biased:

#### Example

We flip a coin many times and start to suspect that it is biased:

- ▶  $H_0$ : the coin is fair. i.e. the probability of heads is p = 0.5
- ▶  $H_A$ : the coin is not fair. i.e.  $p \neq 0.5$

## Crucial Concept: Conclusions of Hypothesis Tests

In the criminal justice system, the jury's verdict does NOT make any statement about the defendant being innocent, rather that there was not enough evidence to prove beyond a reasonable doubt that they were guilty.

Let's compare criminal trials to hypothesis tests:

Let's compare criminal trials to hypothesis tests:

#### Truth:

- Truth about the defendant: innocent vs guilty
- ▶ Truth about the hypothesis:  $H_0$  or  $H_A$

Let's compare criminal trials to hypothesis tests:

#### Truth:

- Truth about the defendant: innocent vs guilty
- ▶ Truth about the hypothesis:  $H_0$  or  $H_A$

#### Decision:

- Verdict: not guilty vs guilty
- ► Test outcome: "Do not reject  $H_0$ " vs "Reject  $H_0$ "

#### Testing Hypotheses Using Confidence Intervals

Example on page 173: The average 10 mile run time for the Cherry Blossom Run in 2006  $\mu_{2006}$  was 93.29 min. Researchers suspect  $\mu_{2012}$  was different:

#### Testing Hypotheses Using Confidence Intervals

Example on page 173: The average 10 mile run time for the Cherry Blossom Run in 2006  $\mu_{2006}$  was 93.29 min. Researchers suspect  $\mu_{2012}$  was different:

- ▶  $H_0$ : average time was the same. i.e.  $\mu_{2012} = 93.29$
- ▶  $H_A$ : average time was different. i.e.  $\mu_{2012} \neq 93.29$

# Testing Hypotheses Using Confidence Intervals

#### **Decision Errors**

#### **Decision Errors**

- ► Trade-off between these two error rates
  - procedures with lower type I error rates typically have higher type II error rates
  - vice-versa

#### **Decision Errors**

- Trade-off between these two error rates
  - procedures with lower type I error rates typically have higher type II error rates
  - vice-versa
- ▶ In other words, there is almost never a procedure that makes no type I errors and no type II errors. Some sort of balance between the two is required

Defendants must be proven "guilty beyond a reasonable doubt"

Defendants must be proven "guilty beyond a reasonable doubt" i.e. in theory they would rather let a guilty person go free, than put an innocent person in jail.

Defendants must be proven "guilty beyond a reasonable doubt" i.e. in theory they would rather let a guilty person go free, than put an innocent person in jail. So let:

- ► *H*<sub>0</sub>: the defendant is innocent
- $\blacktriangleright$   $H_A$ : the defendant is guilty

Defendants must be proven "guilty beyond a reasonable doubt" i.e. in theory they would rather let a guilty person go free, than put an innocent person in jail. So let:

- ▶ *H*<sub>0</sub>: the defendant is innocent
- $\blacktriangleright$   $H_A$ : the defendant is guilty

thus "rejecting  $H_0$ " = guilty verdict. i.e. putting them in jail

Defendants must be proven "guilty beyond a reasonable doubt" i.e. in theory they would rather let a guilty person go free, than put an innocent person in jail. So let:

- ▶ *H*<sub>0</sub>: the defendant is innocent
- $\blacktriangleright$   $H_A$ : the defendant is guilty

thus "rejecting  $H_0$ " = guilty verdict. i.e. putting them in jail

#### In this case:

- Type I error is putting an innocent person in jail (considered worse)
- Type II error is letting a guilty person go free.

An example of where type II error is much more serious: airport screening.

An example of where type II error is much more serious: airport screening. Let:

 $H_0$ : passenger X does not have a bomb/weapon

 $H_A$ : passenger X has a bomb/weapon

An example of where type II error is much more serious: airport screening. Let:

 $H_0$ : passenger X does not have a bomb/weapon

 $H_A$ : passenger X has a bomb/weapon

Failing to reject  $H_0$  when  $H_0$  is false corresponds to not "patting down" passenger X when they really have a bomb/weapon. This is disastrous.

An example of where type II error is much more serious: airport screening. Let:

 $H_0$ : passenger X does not have a bomb/weapon

 $H_A$ : passenger X has a bomb/weapon

Failing to reject  $H_0$  when  $H_0$  is false corresponds to not "patting down" passenger X when they really have a bomb/weapon. This is disastrous.

Hence the long lines at airport security.

Hypothesis testing is built around rejecting or failing to reject the null hypothesis

Hypothesis testing is built around rejecting or failing to reject the null hypothesis

i.e. we do not reject  $H_0$  unless we have strong evidence.

Hypothesis testing is built around rejecting or failing to reject the null hypothesis

i.e. we do not reject  $H_0$  unless we have strong evidence.

As a rule of thumb, when  $H_0$  is true, we do not want to incorrectly reject  $H_0$  more than 5% of the time.

i.e.  $\alpha = 0.05 = 5\%$  is the significance level.

Hypothesis testing is built around rejecting or failing to reject the null hypothesis

i.e. we do not reject  $H_0$  unless we have strong evidence.

As a rule of thumb, when  $H_0$  is true, we do not want to incorrectly reject  $H_0$  more than 5% of the time.

i.e.  $\alpha = 0.05 = 5\%$  is the significance level.

With 95% confidence intervals from earlier, we expect it to miss the true population parameter 5% of the time. This corresponds to  $\alpha=0.05$ .

Say you flip a coin you think is fair 1000 times. Thus you expect 500 heads. Say you observe

Say you flip a coin you think is fair 1000 times. Thus you expect 500 heads. Say you observe

▶ 501 heads? Do you think the coin is biased?

Say you flip a coin you think is fair 1000 times. Thus you expect 500 heads. Say you observe

- ▶ 501 heads? Do you think the coin is biased?
- ▶ 525 heads? Do you think the coin is biased?

Say you flip a coin you think is fair 1000 times. Thus you expect 500 heads. Say you observe

- ▶ 501 heads? Do you think the coin is biased?
- ▶ 525 heads? Do you think the coin is biased?
- 900 heads? Do you think the coin is biased?

Say you flip a coin you think is fair 1000 times. Thus you expect 500 heads. Say you observe

- 501 heads? Do you think the coin is biased?
- ▶ 525 heads? Do you think the coin is biased?
- 900 heads? Do you think the coin is biased?

Intuitively, a p-value quantifies how extreme an observation is given the null hypothesis.

Say you flip a coin you think is fair 1000 times. Thus you expect 500 heads. Say you observe

- 501 heads? Do you think the coin is biased?
- ▶ 525 heads? Do you think the coin is biased?
- 900 heads? Do you think the coin is biased?

Intuitively, a p-value quantifies how extreme an observation is given the null hypothesis.

The smaller the p-value, the more extreme the observation, where the meaning of extreme depends on the context.

#### p-Value Definition

The p-value or observed significance level is the probability of observing a test statistic as extreme or more extreme (in favor of the alternative) as the one observed, assuming  $H_0$  is true.

#### p-Value Definition

The p-value or observed significance level is the probability of observing a test statistic as extreme or more extreme (in favor of the alternative) as the one observed, assuming  $H_0$  is true.

It is NOT the probability of  $H_0$  being true. This is the most common misinterpretation of the p-value.

A poll found that college students sleep about 7 hours a night. Researchers suspect that Reedies sleep more. They use a sample of n=110 Reedies to investigate this claim at an  $\alpha=0.05$  level.

#### Next Time

► More Hypothesis Testing