

Research Methods

Probability and Null Hypothesis Testing (incl. *z*-Test and *t*-Test)

Laurens Rook (Delft University of Technology)

Previous lectures

- ❖ Descriptive statistics
- ❖ Experiments: building blocks & research designs
- ❖ Today: Probability, null hypothesis significance testing (Ch. 4) and inferential statistics (Ch. 5-6)
 - ❖ illustrated for z -test & various t -tests

Learning goals

- ❖ Understanding probability and its relation with the normal distribution
- ❖ Differentiate null and alternative hypothesis
- ❖ Understanding the relation between Type 1 and Type 2 errors and hypothesis testing
- ❖ Capable of explaining what statistical significance means (for z -test & various t -test)

Probability

1.

Basic concepts

- ❖ **Probability** = the number of ways a particular outcome (event) can occur divided by the total number of outcomes (events)
- ❖ **Proportion** = to express probabilities as varying between 0.0 (certainly no occurrence) and 1.0 (certain occurrence of event)
- ❖ **Uncertainty** = the range in event occurrence likelihood

Examples

Flipping a coin once --> probability to get a "head"

Number of ways to get "head" / number of possible outcomes = $\frac{1}{2}$ = .50

Rolling "2" with a die once --> probability to get a "2"

Number of ways to get "2" / number of possible outcomes = $\frac{1}{6}$ = .167

- ❖ After many trials, we can accurately predict what proportion of an event ("head", "2") will take place

Two probability rules

❖ Multiplication rule (the “AND” rule)

- the probability of a series of outcomes occurring on successive trials is the product of their individual probabilities, when the sequence of outcomes is independent

- E.g., getting “heads” twice in two tosses:

$$0.5 * 0.5 = 0.25$$

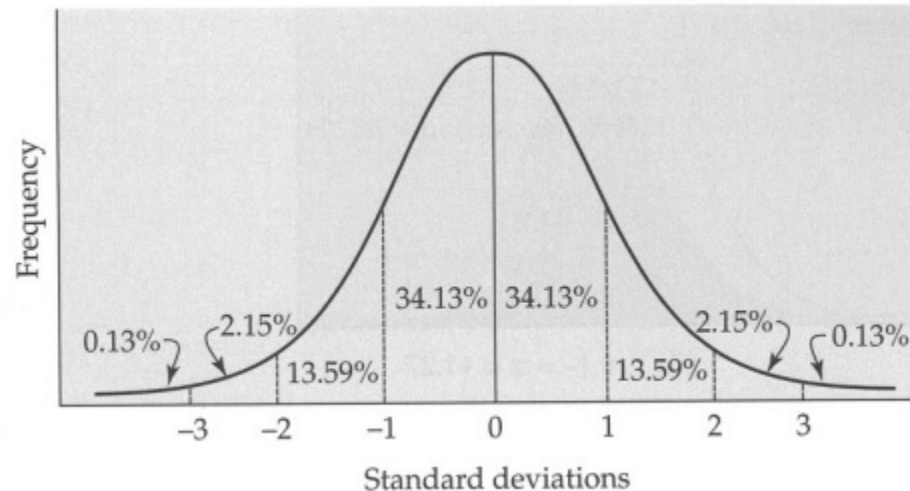
Two probability rules

❖ Addition rule (the “OR” rule)

- the probability of one outcome or another outcome occurring on a particular trial is the sum of their individual probabilities, when the outcomes are mutually exclusive
- E.g., drawing either “clubs” or “hearts” from a deck of cards:

$$0.25 + 0.25 = 0.5$$

The link between probability and the standard normal curve



- ❖ We can use the areas under the standard curve to determine the probability that an observation *falls within a certain area under the curve*

How? With *z*-scores

$$Z = \frac{x - \mu}{\sigma}$$

- ❖ Where:
 - x = a person's score
 - μ = the population mean
 - σ = the population standard deviation
- ❖ We convert a person's test score into a *z*-score using the formula, and read the associated proportion (the area under the curve) from a table (book, Table A1, Appendix A)

Example 1

- ❖ We collected intelligence test scores that are normally distributed with a mean = 100 and SD = 15. What is the probability that we select from the general population a person with a test score of 119 or higher?

$$Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} = \frac{119 - 100}{15} = \frac{19}{15} = 1.27$$

--> Table A1 from Appendix A: $p(X \geq 119) = .10203$ (10.2%)

Example 2

- ❖ We collected intelligence test scores that are normally distributed with a mean = 100 and SD = 15. What is the probability that we select from the general population a person with a test score of 70 or lower?

$$Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} = \frac{70 - 100}{15} = \frac{-30}{15} = -2.0$$

--> Table A1 from Appendix A: $p(X \leq 70) = .02275$ (2.3%)

Example 3 (multiplication)

- ❖ We collected intelligence test scores that are normally distributed with a mean = 100 and SD = 15. What is the probability that we select from the general population a person with a test score of 80 or lower AND a person with a test score of 125 or higher?

$$Z_1 = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} = \frac{80 - 100}{15} = \frac{-20}{15} = -1.33 \rightarrow p(X \leq 80) = .09175$$

$$Z_2 = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma} = \frac{125 - 100}{15} = \frac{25}{15} = 1.67 \rightarrow p(X \geq 125) = .04745$$

*
.00435 (0.4%)

Why relevant?

- ❖ We can use the individual score --> z-score conversion principle for hypothesis testing research when:
 - We are interested in a sample mean (z-test)
 - We have set critical values (areas under the normal curve that we consider regions of rejection)
 - We have formulated a null hypothesis and an alternative hypothesis

Hypothesis testing

2.

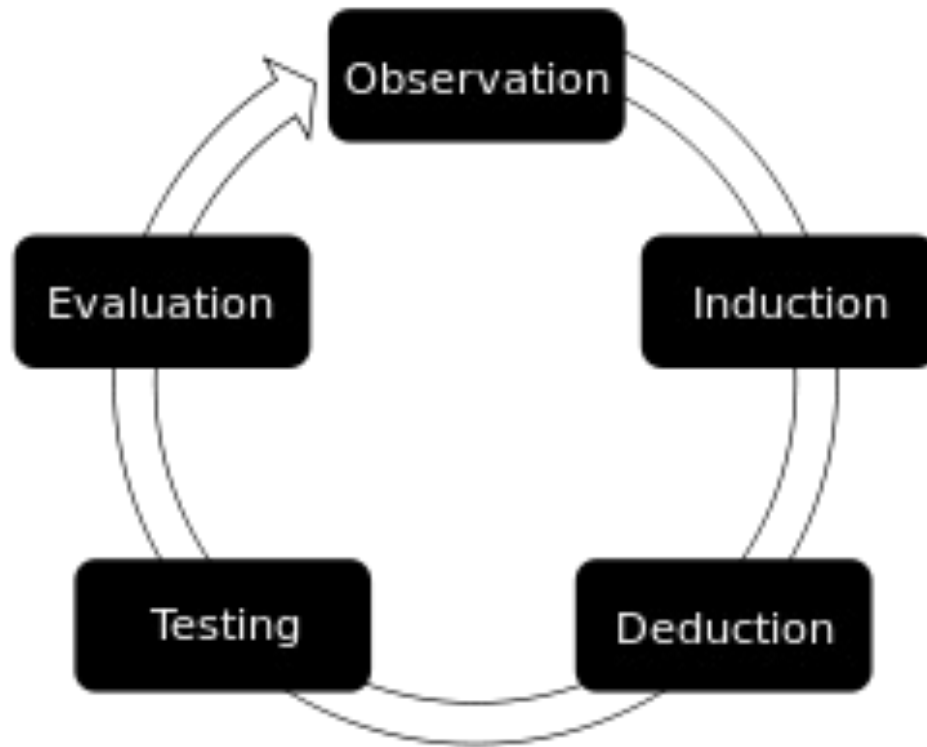
Null hypothesis significance testing

- ❖ The aim of research usually is to provide an answer to a research question, which is formulated as a statement that can be accepted / rejected
- ❖ The process of discovering if the statement is supported by your data (or not) --> Null hypothesis significance testing (NHST)

Steps in hypothesis development

1. State the null (H_0) and alternative (H_a) hypotheses
2. Determine your significance level ($p < .05$ or else)
3. Choose the appropriate statistical test based on the type of scales used (nominal, ordinal, interval, ratio)
4. Check your statistical output to see if your null hypothesis is accepted / rejected, or if – instead – the alternative hypothesis is accepted / rejected

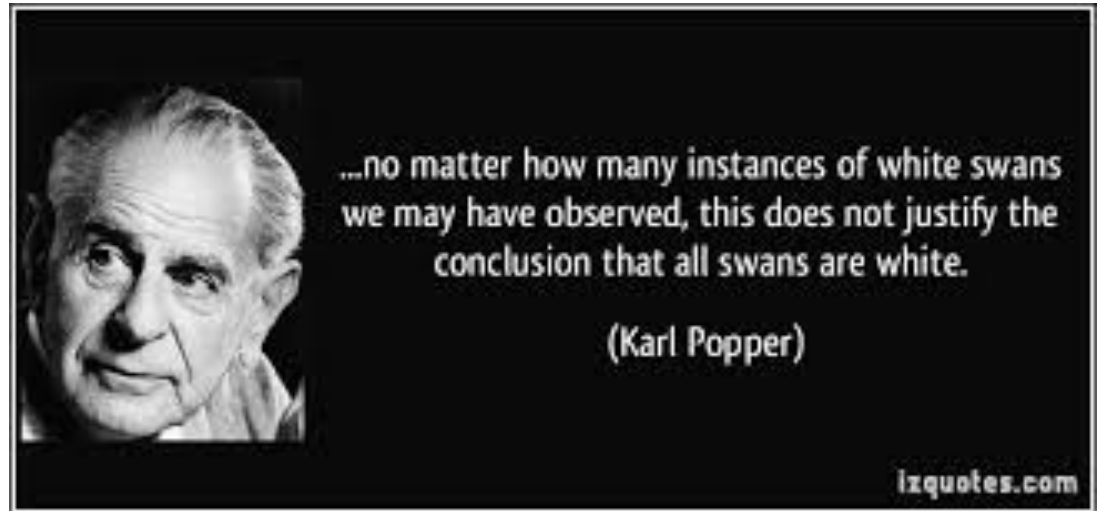
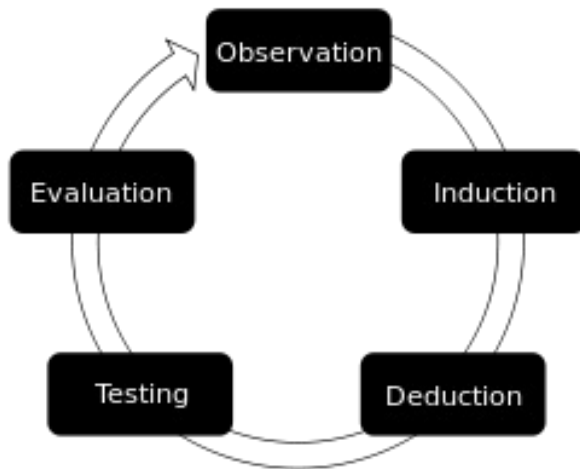
How science works (the empirical cycle)



A research dilemma

- ❖ You cannot statistically demonstrate the **“truth”** of a research statement
- ❖ Statistics are better capable of showing that something is not true
 - --> they are designed for **“falsification”** purposes

Karl Popper



The way out of this...

- ❖ To propose exactly the opposite of what you wish to demonstrate to be true in a null hypothesis
- ❖ Then falsify that opposite statement (or null hypothesis)
- ❖ And, what is left (your initial or alternative hypothesis) must then be true

Null hypothesis significance testing (approach)

- ❖ We start with two competing hypotheses:
 - ❖ H_0 (the **null hypothesis**): the effect does not exist
 - ❖ H_a (the **alternative hypothesis**): an effect (a difference between two groups) exists, and is significant
- this H_a is your research hypothesis, the statement you wish to support --> *but you test it via the null hypothesis!*

H_0 and H_a : two forms

- ❖ **One-tailed:** Your H_a is formulated in terms of “higher / lower” (thus **directional**); same follows for the H_0
- ❖ **Two-tailed:** Your H_a is formulated in terms of “differences that exist between groups” (**nondirectional**); the H_0 then states that no differences exist

Probability and statistical significance

- ❖ **Statistical significance** = an observed difference between two descriptive statistics (such as the means), which is unlikely to have occurred by chance
- ❖ **Probability value** = in social and management science, researchers usually work with a p -value of .05
 - --> they take a 5% risk of making a Type 1 error

NHST is prone to Type-1 and Type-2 errors

TABLE 8.1 The four possible outcomes in statistical decision making

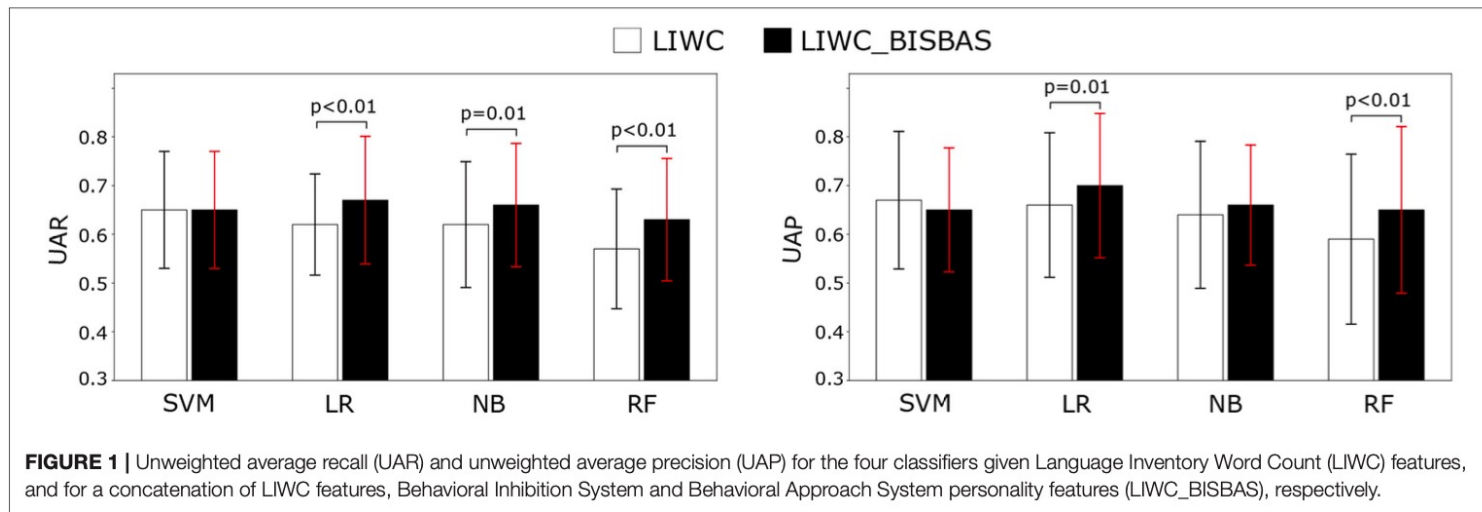
THE RESEARCHER'S DECISION	THE TRUTH (UNKNOWN TO THE RESEARCHER)	
	H_0 is true	H_0 is false
Reject H_0 (say it is false)	Type I error	Correct decision
Fail to reject H_0 (say it is true)	Correct decision	Type II error

Example

Toward Linguistic Recognition of Generalized Anxiety Disorder

Laurens Rook, Maria Chiara Mazza, Iulia Lefter and Frances Brazier*

Faculty of Technology, Policy and Management, Delft University of Technology, Delft, Netherlands



$GAD \geq 10$

Example

Toward Linguistic Recognition of Generalized Anxiety Disorder

Laurens Rook, Maria Chiara Mazza, Iulia Lefter and Frances Brazier*

Faculty of Technology, Policy and Management, Delft University of Technology, Delft, Netherlands

- ❖ **False positives** --> when text was emotionally negative for a particular episode, but positive on the overall study journey (Type I)
- ❖ **False negatives** --> idem when text had been very short (2-3 condensed sentences; Type II)

In sum: Essence of null hypothesis significance testing

- H_0 (the null hypothesis): the effect does not exist
- H_a (the alternative hypothesis): an effect exists

- ❖ We conduct a statistic test that represents H_0 . We calculate the probability that we get a value big enough to accept H_0 . Thus we check the p-value of H_0
- ❖ If too small ($p < 0.05$), we reject the idea of H_0 that we have no effect, and accept our H_a instead!

Inferential statistics (*z*-test)

3.

Inferential statistics

- ❖ NHST allows us to select a sample, compare it with the population at large, and analyze data collected
- ❖ **Inferential statistics** = procedures for drawing conclusions about a (wider) population, based on data collected from a (smaller) sample
- ❖ **Parametric tests** --> a (z or t) test that involves making assumptions about estimates of population characteristics (mean, sd)

Today (Ch. 5-6)

- ❖ The single-sample z -test
- ❖ The single-sample t -test
- ❖ The t -test for related groups
- ❖ The t -test for independent groups

The (single sample) z-test

- ❖ **A (single sample) z-test** = a parametric inferential statistical test of the **null hypothesis** for a single sample, *where the population variance is known*

The *z*-score vs. *z*-test

- ❖ **A *z*-score** = a single data point (such as a single participant's score) --> you could compare this score to the mean score of the wider population
- ❖ **A *z*-test** = a sample mean (from all participant scores in your study) --> you compare this sample mean to the population mean

The z-score vs. z-test

z-score (single data point):

$$Z = \frac{X - \mu}{\sigma}$$

z-test (sample mean):

$$\sigma_{\bar{x}} = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{N}}$$

$$Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma_{\bar{x}}}$$

$\sigma_{\bar{x}}$ = standard deviation of the
sampling distribution (SE of
the mean)
 σ = standard deviation
 N = distribution of sample means for
sample size N

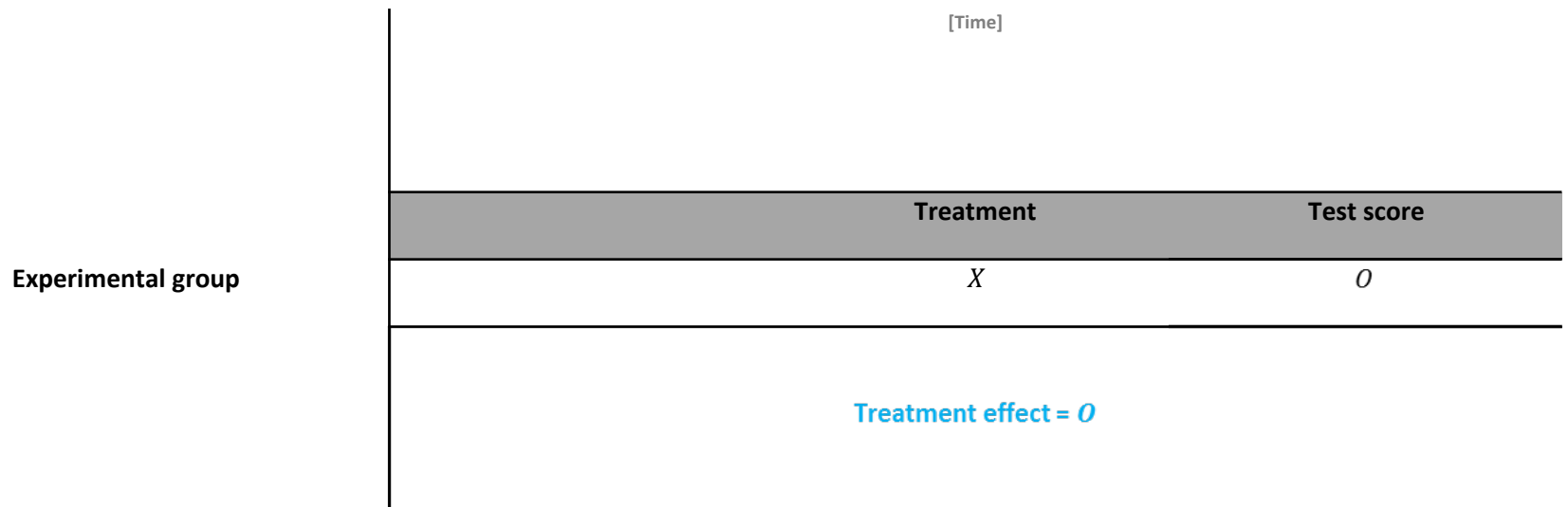
\bar{X} = sample mean
 μ = mean of sampling distribution

(single sample) z -test: when?

❖ **A single-group design** = A research study in which there is only one group of participants

- Example: the one-shot case study design from the lectures on (quasi) experiments
- when the population variance is known

Posttest only (one-shot case study) design*



*Quasi

Form of a *z*-test (one-tailed)

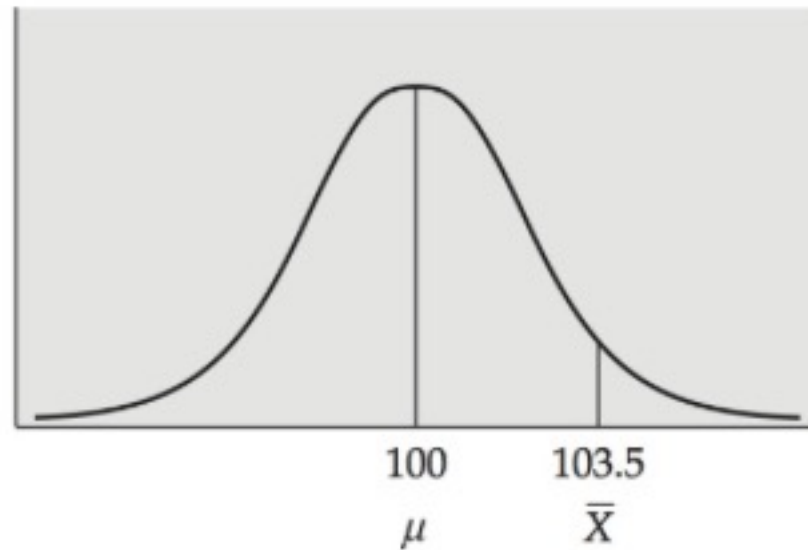
❖ Given are:

- ☐ a normal distribution on scores
- ☐ a population mean
- ☐ a sample mean
- ☐ one-tailed test --> alpha level of .05 or less

❖ Question to answer: Is the sample mean statistically bigger (or smaller) than the population mean?

Example

FIGURE 9.1
The obtained mean
in relation to the
population mean



Population mean

Sample mean

Interpretation of a z-test (one-tailed)

- ❖ We convert the z-score to the associated proportion (Table A1, Appendix A) to get the **z value obtained**
- ❖ We compare the **z critical value** (that marks the edge of the region of rejection in a sampling distribution) with the **z value obtained**
- ❖ **Critical value** = the edge of the region of rejection in a sampling distribution. Values equal or beyond it fall in the region of rejection for the H_0

Interpretation: Example

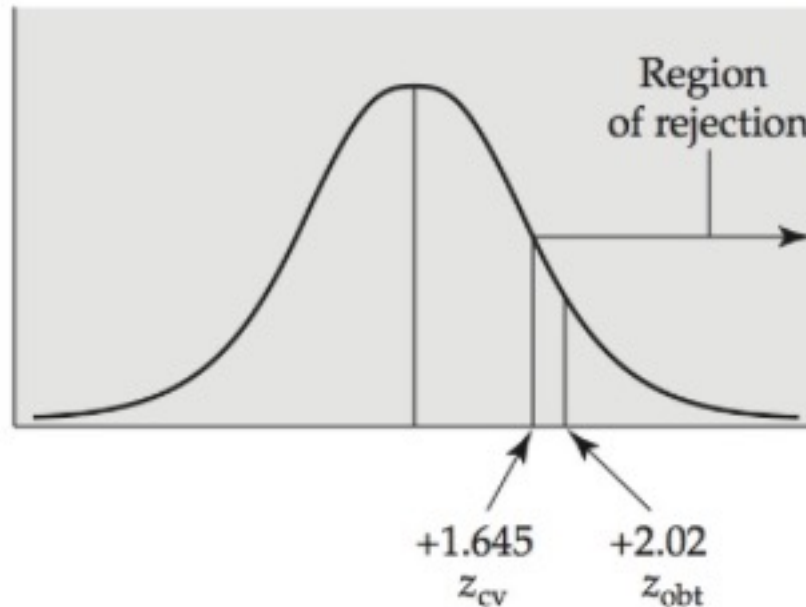


FIGURE 9.2
The z critical value
and the z obtained
for the z test
example

The z value obtained falls in the region of rejection for the H_0 .

Interpretation: the sample mean was statistically different from the population mean at $p < .05$ (one-tailed)

Form of a *z*-test (one-tailed)

❖ Given are:

- ☐ a normal distribution
- ☐ a population mean
- ☐ a sample mean
- ☐ one-tailed test --> alpha level of .05 or less

❖ Question to answer: Is the sample mean statistically bigger (or smaller) than the population mean?

Interpretation of a z-test (two-tailed)

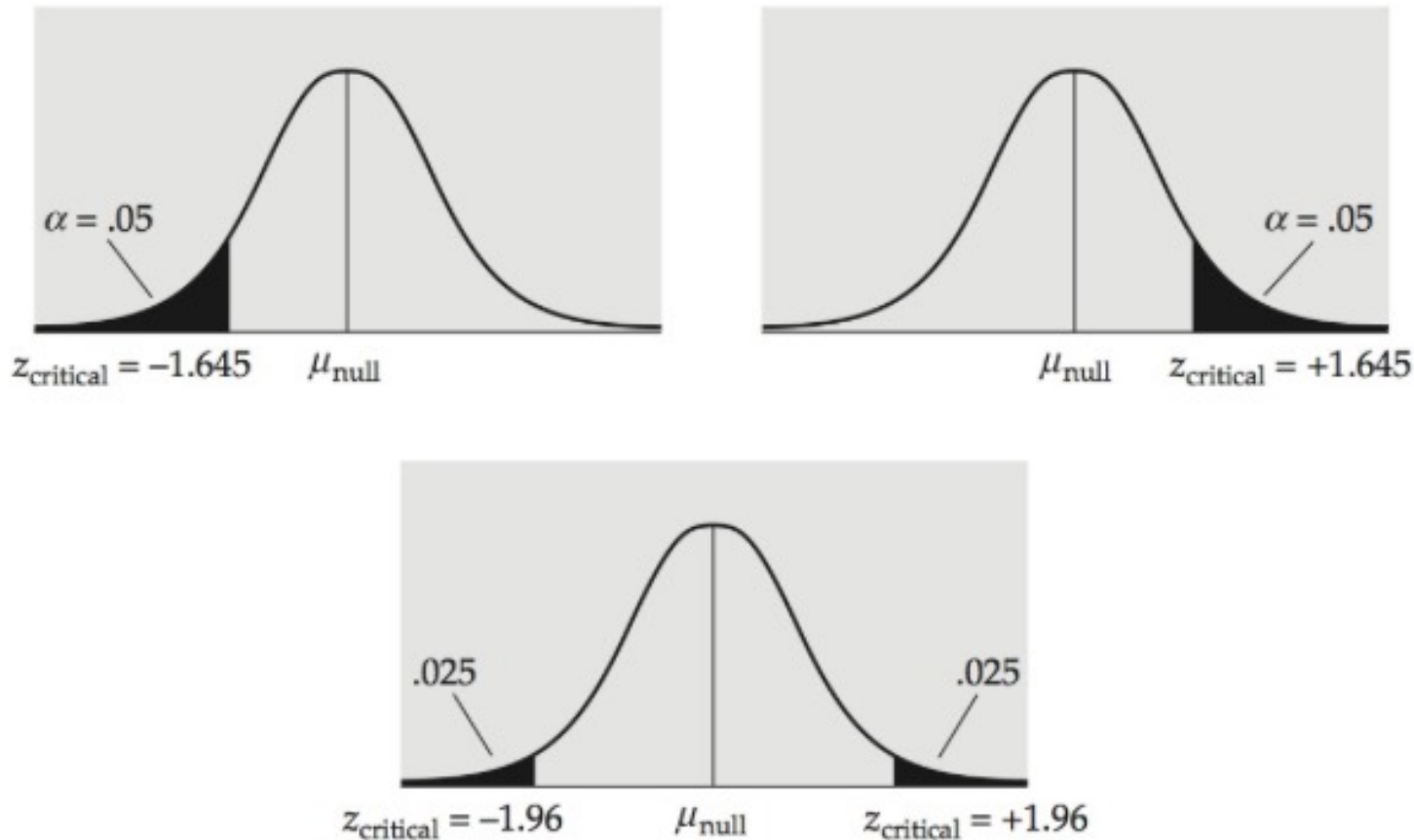
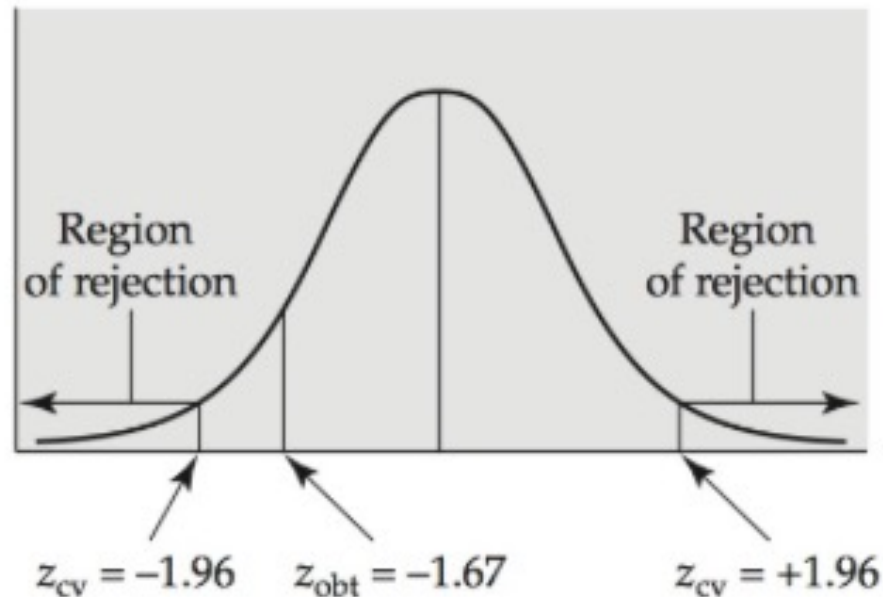


FIGURE 9.3
Regions of rejection
and critical values
for one-tailed versus
two-tailed tests

Interpretation: Example

FIGURE 9.4
The z critical value and the z obtained for the two-tailed z test example



The z value obtained does NOT fall in the region of rejection for the H_0 .
Interpretation: the sample mean was NOT statistically different from the population mean at $p < .05$ (two-tailed)

Statistical power & assumptions

- ❖ **Statistical power** = the probability that you correctly reject a false H_0
- ❖ This is higher with a one-tailed test, given that the z critical value does not need to be so large to get significantly different from the population mean
 - A one-tailed test is more statistically powerful than a two-sided test (it increases the chance to find a $p < .05$, and to correctly reject H_0)
 - Another way to achieve this is to increase your sample size (which you usually do for a two-sided test)

In JASP

One Sample T-Test

Variables

Tests

- ☐ Student
- ☐ Wilcoxon signed-rank
- ☒ Z Test

Test value: 0

Std. deviation: 1

Alt. Hypothesis

- ☐ \neq Test value
- ☒ $>$ Test value
- ☐ $<$ Test value

Assumption checks

- ☐ Normality

Additional Statistics

- ☐ Levene estimate
- ☐ Confidence interval 95.0 %
- ☐ Effect size
- ☐ Confidence interval 95.0 %
- ☐ Descriptives
- ☐ Descriptives plots
- ☐ Confidence interval 95.0 %
- ☐ Raincloud plots
- ☐ Vovk-Sellke maximum p-ratio

Missing Values

- ☒ Exclude cases per dependent variable
- ☐ Exclude cases listwise

Results

One Sample T-Test

Z	p

Note. For the Z-test, the alternative hypothesis specifies that the mean is greater than 0.

Note. Z test.

Z-test

Two-tailed

One-tailed (two directions)

Inferential statistics (t -test)

4.

(a) The (single sample) t -test

- ❖ **A (single sample) t -test** = a parametric inferential statistical test of the null hypothesis for a single sample, where the population variance is **NOT** known
- ❖ Unlike the z -test, the (Student's) t -test works with t distributions that are NOT normally distributed (but have a bell-shaped, symmetrical form)
- ❖ Notation includes **degrees of freedom (df)** = $N - 1$
The number of scores that are free to vary (sample size - 1)

Example

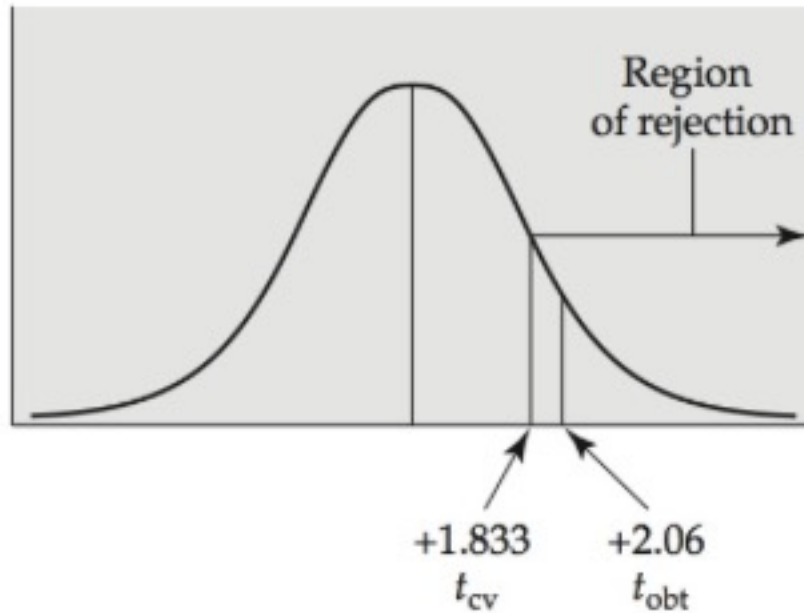
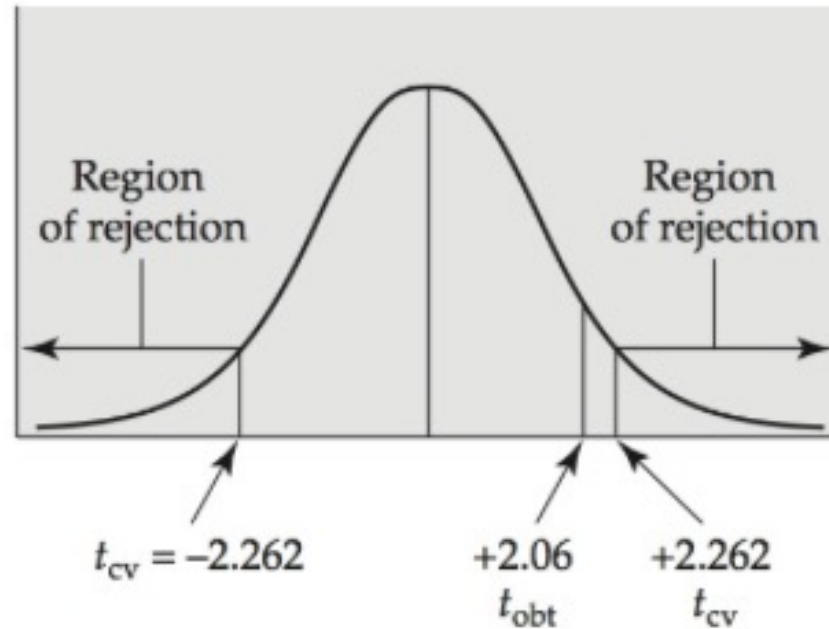


FIGURE 10.1
The t critical value and the t obtained for the single-sample one-tailed t test example

❖ $t(9) = 2.06, p < .05$ (one-tailed)

Example (two-tailed)

FIGURE 10.2
The t critical value and the t obtained
for the single-
sample two-tailed
test example



❖ $t(9) = 2.06$, *ns.* (two-tailed)

Statistical power & assumptions

- ❖ The (single sample) t-test should be used only if:
 - ❑ the data are interval / ratio in scale
 - ❑ the population distribution of scores is symmetrical
- ❖ If those assumptions aren't met --> nonparametric tests should be used

One sample z -test and t -test in JASP

One Sample T-Test

One Sample T-Test ▼

		Test	Statistic	df	p
CPerson	Student		37.51	119	< .001
	Z		36.83		< .001

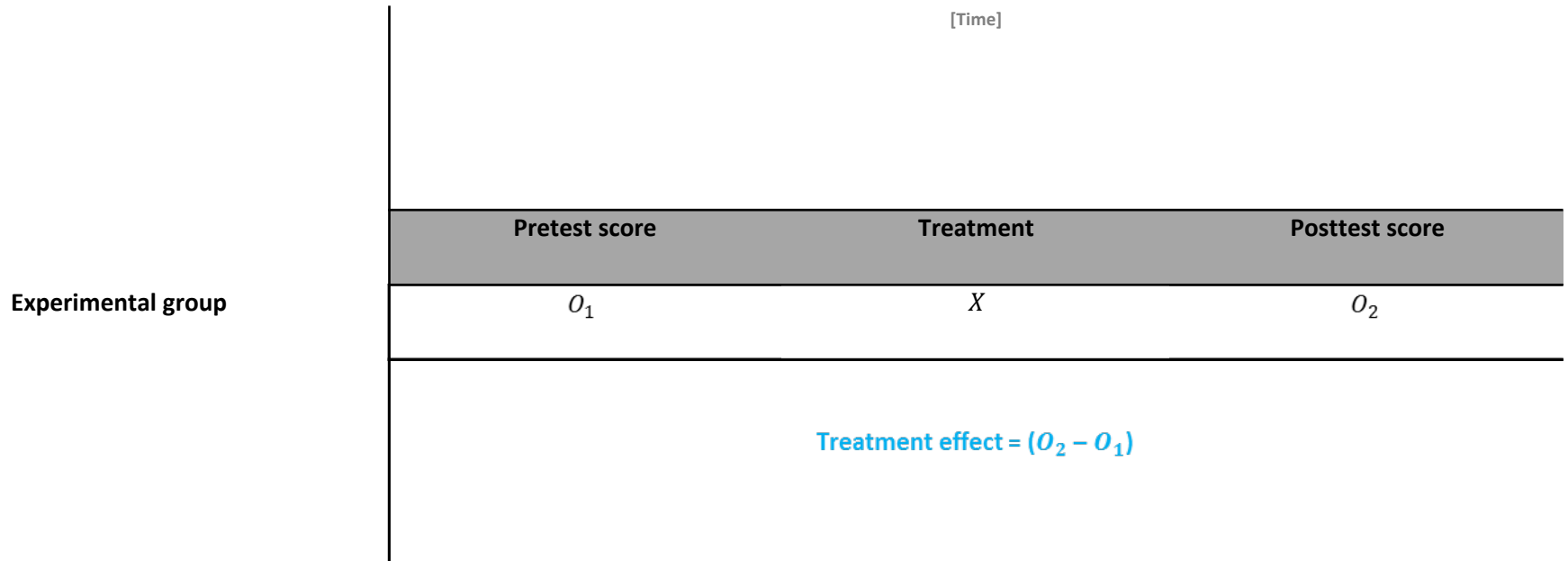
(b) Testing hypotheses about two related means

❖ Paired samples t -test = to examine the differences in the same group before and after a treatment

□ H_0 = there is no difference between the pretest and posttest

□ H_a = there exists a difference between pretest and posttest

(One group) pretest-posttest design*



*Quasi

Paired samples t -test in JASP

Paired Samples T-Test

Paired Samples T-Test

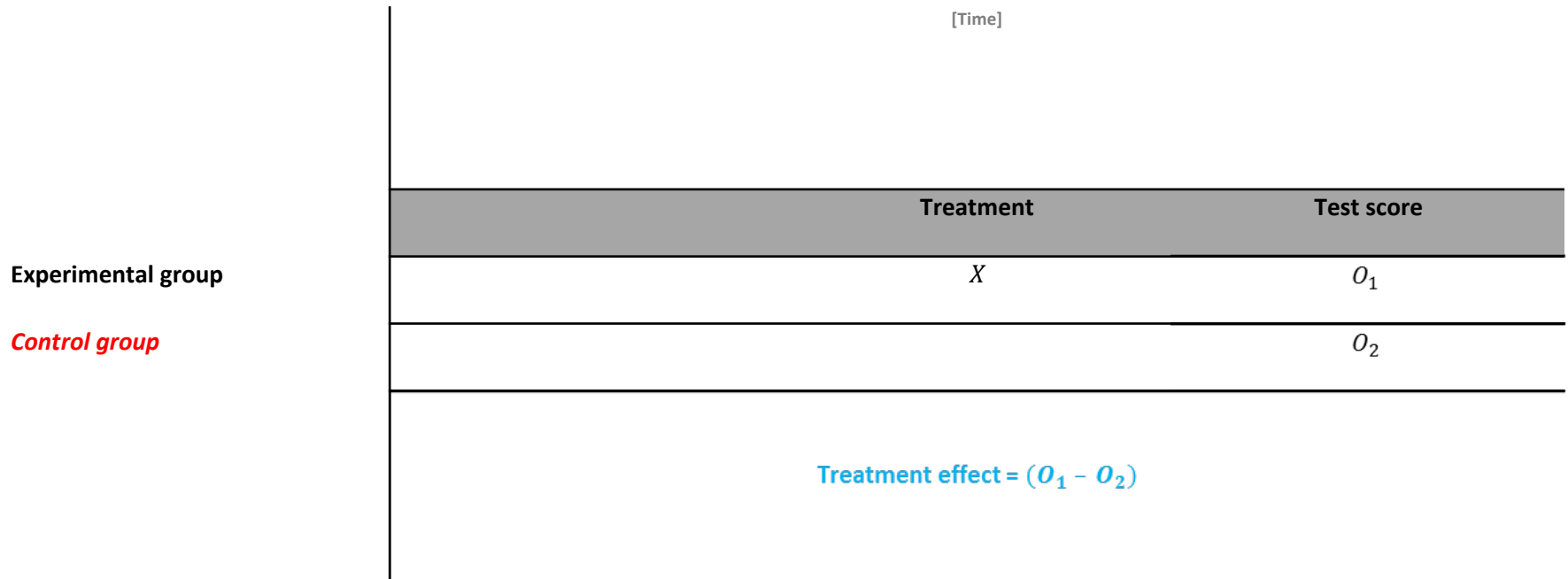
Measure 1		Measure 2	t	df	p
Howdoyoufeelrightnow_A	-	Howdoyoufeelrightnow	-0.211	141	0.833

Note. Student's t -test.

(c) Testing hypotheses about *unrelated* means

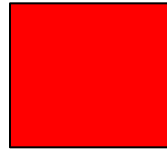
- ❖ Independent samples t -test = when we are interested whether two groups are different from each other on a particular interval / ratio-scaled factor
- ❖ This applies to experimental (treatment) vs. control group designs

Posttest with control group design*



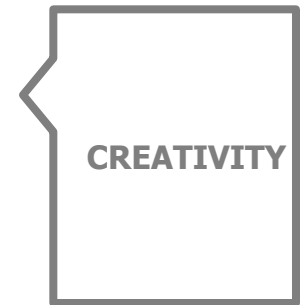
*Quasi

T-tests are about comparing means between two independent groups



3
2
3
1
2

4
4
5
4
5



▼ Paired Samples T-Test

CS
MaxG
CPerson
BotPersonality
Gender
NPS
MaxG_1
MaxG_2
MaxG_3
MaxG_4

Variable Pairs

☒ Student
☐ Wilcoxon signed-rank

☐ Location parameter
Confidence interval 95.0 %
☐ Effect size
Confidence interval 95.0 %
☐ Descriptives
☐ Descriptives plots
Confidence interval 95.0 %
☐ Raincloud plots
☐ Raincloud difference plots
Horizontal display
☐ Vovk-Sellke maximum p-ratio

Alt. Hypothesis
☒ Measure 1 ≠ Measure 2
☐ Measure 1 > Measure 2
☐ Measure 1 < Measure 2

Assumption Checks
☐ Normality

Missing Values
☒ Exclude cases per dependent variable
☐ Exclude cases listwise

▼ Independent Samples T-Test

CS
MaxG
CPerson
BotPersonality
Gender
NPS
MaxG_1
MaxG_2
MaxG_3
MaxG_4

Dependent Variables

Grouping Variable

☒ Student
☐ Welch
☐ Mann-Whitney

☐ Location parameter
Confidence interval 95.0 %
☐ Effect size
Cohen's d
Glass' delta
Hedges' g
Confidence interval 95 %
☐ Descriptives
☐ Descriptives plots
Confidence interval 95.0 %
☐ Raincloud plots
Horizontal display
☐ Vovk-Sellke maximum p-ratio

Alt. Hypothesis
☒ Group 1 ≠ Group 2
☐ Group 1 > Group 2
☐ Group 1 < Group 2

Assumption Checks
☐ Normality
☐ Equality of variances

Missing Values
☒ Exclude cases per dependent variable
☐ Exclude cases listwise

Independent Samples T-Test

MaxG
Gender
NPS
MaxG_1
MaxG_2
MaxG_3
MaxG_4
MaxG_5
MaxG_6
MaxG_7

Dependent Variables
CPerson
CS

Grouping Variable
BotPersonality

☒ Student
☐ Welch
☐ Mann-Whitney

☐ Location parameter
☐ Confidence interval 95.0 %
☐ Effect size
☐ Cohen's d
☐ Glass' delta
☐ Hedges' g
☐ Confidence interval 95 %

Alt. Hypothesis
☒ Group 1 ≠ Group 2
☐ Group 1 > Group 2
☐ Group 1 < Group 2

☒ Descriptives
☒ Descriptives plots
Confidence interval 95.0 %
☒ Raincloud plots
☐ Horizontal display
☐ Vovk-Sellike maximum p-ratio

Assumption Checks
☐ Normality
☐ Equality of variances

Missing Values
☒ Exclude cases per dependent variable
☐ Exclude cases listwise

Results

Independent Samples T-Test

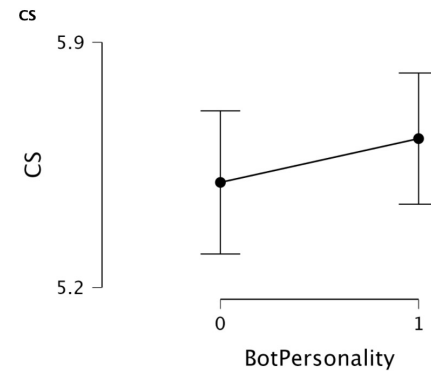
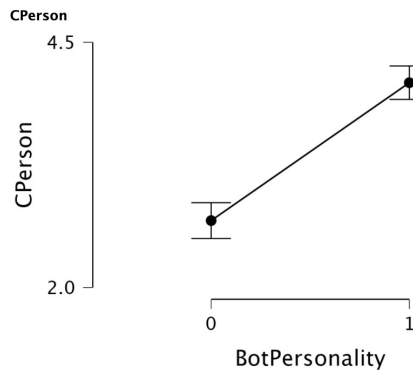
	t	df	p
CPerson	-11.219	118	< .001
CS	-0.899	118	0.371

Note. Student's t-test.

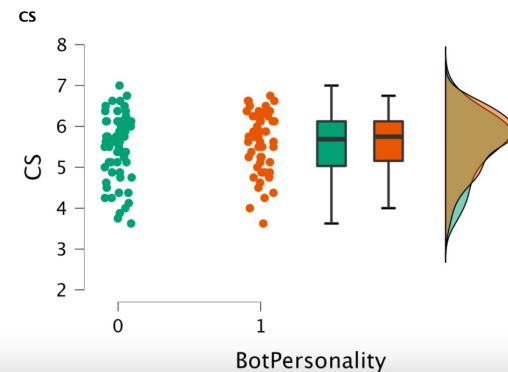
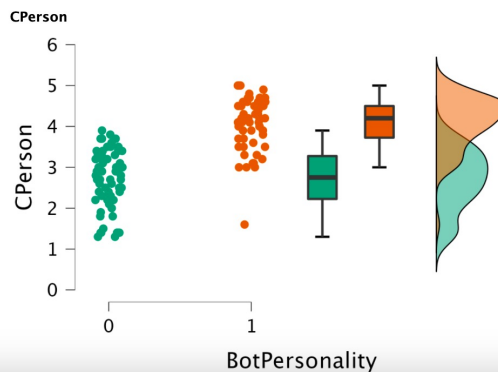
Descriptives

Group Descriptives					
	Group	N	Mean	SD	SE
CPerson	0	62	2.682	0.719	0.091
	1	58	4.088	0.648	0.085
CS	0	62	5.500	0.804	0.102
	1	58	5.625	0.712	0.094

Descriptives Plots



Raincloud Plots



JASP output presentation in exam

Independent Samples T-Test ▼

Independent Samples T-Test

	t	df	p
CPerson	-11.219	118	< .001
CS	-0.899	118	0.371

Note. Student's t-test.

In sum

Learning goals (Ch. 4)

- ❖ Understanding probability and its relation with the normal distribution
- ❖ Differentiate null and alternative hypothesis
- ❖ Understanding the relation between Type 1 and Type 2 errors and hypothesis testing
- ❖ Capable of explaining what statistical significance means (for z -test & various t -test)

Learning goals (Ch. 5 - 6)

- ❖ Explain what a z -score / z -test / t -test is and how it is computed
- ❖ Explain what statistical power is and how to make statistical tests more powerful
- ❖ List the assumptions of the z -test / t -test
- ❖ Capable of interpreting a z -test / t -test result (one-tailed and two-tailed)