

Hypothesis Testing

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Overview

① Big Picture

Why test?

② Examples: Parametric tests

One-way with 2 levels with no sig

One-way with 2 levels with sig

One-way with 4 levels

Between-subjects

Two-way

③ Assumption check

Normality check

Homogeneity of variances

④ Examples: Non-parametric tests

Sources

- Mackenzie, Chapter 6, **Hypothesis Testing**, Human Computer Interaction: An Empirical Research Perspective, 1st ed. (2013)
- Yatani, Advanced Topics in Human-Computer Interaction,
<http://yatani.jp/teaching/doku.php?id=2016hci:start>

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Why test?

Terminologies

Let's take a oversimplistic case study to understand these terminologies:

IV: Mouse vs. Gestures and Sitting vs. Standing, DV: Speed

- Null hypothesis vs. alternative hypothesis
- p-value
- alpha
- main effect
- interaction effect
- effect size
- degree of freedom
- sum of squares (within and between)
- mean squares

Main effect and Interaction effect

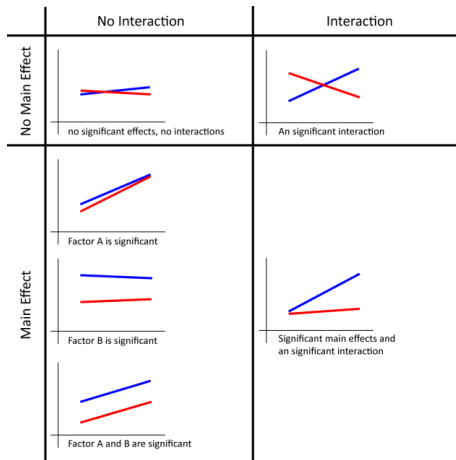


Figure: Source: Yatani's post-hoc tests

Which test to use?

- Number of levels
- Between subject vs. within-subject
- Parametric vs. Non-parametric

Long and wide format

There is a difference in how to format your data between within-subject and between subject

In between subject, we use _____ format.

In within-subject, we use _____ format

Wide format

A	B
5.3	5.7
3.6	4.8
5.2	5.1
3.6	4.5
4.6	6
4.1	6.8
4	6
4.8	4.6
5.2	5.5
5.1	5.6

Figure: Wide format structure: Cols depicting possible combinations

Long format

A	5.3
A	3.6
A	5.2
A	3.6
A	4.6
A	4.1
A	4
A	4.8
A	5.2
A	5.1
B	5.7
B	4.8
B	5.1
B	4.5
B	6
B	6.8
B	6
B	4.6
B	5.5
B	5.6

Figure: Long format structure: one col for each factor

Reporting format (APA)

- If **significant**, use threshold set .05, .01, .005, .001, .0005, .0001. p is cited as $p < .05$ instead of $p = .0121$.
- If **not significant though**, say "n.s." instead
- If **very close to significant**, report exact value.
- Plot with **standard error bars**
- Report **mean** and **std** (same unit)
- Common nowadays to report **effect size**
 - **Effect size** measures how "strong" is the significance. SPSS reports **Partial Eta Squared** (η_p^2) - .02 means that the factor X by itself accounted for only 2% of the overall (effect + error) variance. Usually around > 0.09 is considered moderate, while > 0.25 is large.

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Example: One-way with 2 levels with no sig

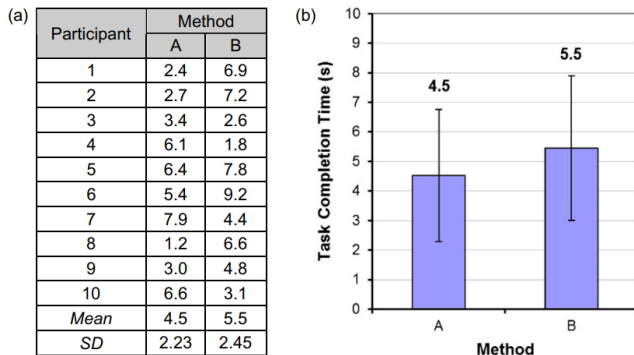


FIGURE 6.6

(a) Data for simulation in Figure 6.2b. (b) Bar chart with error bars showing ± 1 standard deviation.

Figure: Source: Fg. 6.6 (Mackenzie)

Example: One-way with 2 levels with no sig

ANOVA Table for Task Completion Time (s)

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	P-Value	Lambda	Power
Subject	9	37.372	4.152				
Method	1	4.324	4.324	.626	.4491	.626	.107
Method * Subject	9	62.140	6.904				

FIGURE 6.7

Analysis of variance for data in Figure 6.3b.

Figure: Source: Fg. 6.7 (Mackenzie). $F = 4.324/6.904 = .626$. Given p -value of .4491, there is around 45% that the difference occurs by chance.

The mean task completion times were 4.5 s for Method A and 5.5 s for Method B. As there was substantial variation in the observations across participants, the difference was not statistically significant as revealed in an analysis of variances ($F_{1,9} = 0.626$, ns).

FIGURE 6.8

Reporting a non-significant ANOVA result.

Figure: Source: Fg. 6.8 (Mackenzie). It means that we have not enough evidence to reject null hypothesis

Example: One-way with 2 levels with sig

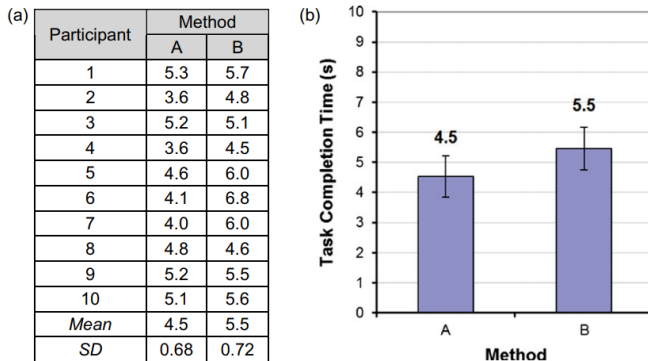


FIGURE 6.3

(a) Data for simulation in Figure 6.2a. (b) Bar chart with error bars showing ± 1 standard deviation.

Figure: Source: Fg. 6.3 (Mackenzie)

Example: One-way with 2 levels with sig

ANOVA Table for Task Completion Time (s)

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	P-Value	Lambda	Power
Subject	9	5.080	.564				
Method	1	4.232	4.232	9.796	.0121	9.796	.804
Method * Subject	9	3.888	.432				

FIGURE 6.4

Analysis of variance table for data in Figure 6.3a.

Figure: Source: Fg. 6.4 (Mackenzie): P-value of 0.0121 means that there is less than 2% that the difference occurs by chance. By convention requires less than 0.05 to reject null hypothesis

The mean task completion time for Method A was 4.5 s. This was 20.1% less than the mean of 5.5 s observed for Method B. The difference was statistically significant ($F_{1,9} = 9.80$, $p < .05$).

FIGURE 6.5

Example of how to report the results of an analysis of variance in a research paper.

Figure: Source: Fg. 6.5 (Mackenzie): $F\text{-value} = \text{between-group variances} / \text{within-group variances} = 4.232 / .432$

Example: One-way with 4 levels

Participant	Test Condition			
	A	B	C	D
1	11	11	21	16
2	18	11	22	15
3	17	10	18	13
4	19	15	21	20
5	13	17	23	10
6	10	15	15	20
7	14	14	15	13
8	13	14	19	18
9	19	18	16	12
10	10	17	21	18
11	10	19	22	13
12	16	14	18	20
13	10	20	17	19
14	10	13	21	18
15	20	17	14	18
16	18	17	17	14
Mean	14.25	15.13	18.75	16.06
SD	3.84	2.94	2.89	3.23

Figure: Source: Fg. 6.9a (Mackenzie)

Example: One-way with 4 levels

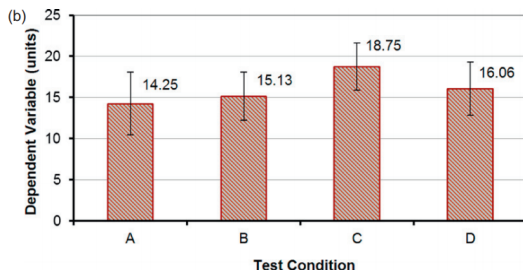


Figure: Source: Fg. 6.9b (Mackenzie)

ANOVA Table for Dependent Variable (units)

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	P-Value	Lambda	Power
Subject	15	81.109	5.407				
Test Condition	3	182.172	60.724	4.954	.0047	14.862	.896
Test Condition * Subject	45	551.578	12.257				

Figure: Source: Fg. 6.9c (Mackenzie)

Example: One-way with 4 levels

After ANOVA, to determine exactly which condition is different with which condition, a **posthoc analysis** is required - either **Tukey's test** or **pairwise comparison with the Bonferroni correction**

Scheffe for Dependent Variable (units)

Effect: Test Condition

Significance Level: 5 %

	Mean Diff.	Crit. Diff.	P-Value	
A, B	-.875	3.302	.9003	
A, C	-4.500	3.302	.0032	S
A, D	-1.813	3.302	.4822	
B, C	-3.625	3.302	.0256	S
B, D	-.938	3.302	.8806	
C, D	2.688	3.302	.1520	

Figure: Source: Fg. 6.11 (Mackenzie)

Example: Between-subjects designs

To check whether handedness has a effect on task completion time.

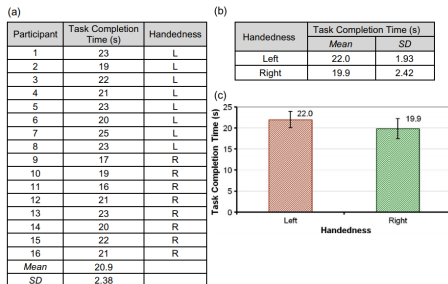


Figure: Source: Fg. 6.12 (Mackenzie)

ANOVA Table for Task Completion Time (s)

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	P-Value	Lambda	Power
Handedness	1	18.063	18.063	3.781	.0722	3.781	.429
Residual	14	66.875	4.777				

Figure: Source: Fg. 6.13 (Mackenzie)

Two-way ANOVA

- Experiments with two IVs (factors) is called a **two-way design**
- Analysis of variance of two-way design will give us **main effects** of each factor and **interaction effect**
- Interaction effect indicates a **relational effect** between the IV on the DV

Example: 3 x 2 within-subjects design

Let's take both factors as within-subjects, the first factor is device with 3 levels - mouse, trackball, and stylus, and second factor is task with 2 levels - point-select and drag-select. We called this a 3 x 2 within-subjects design.

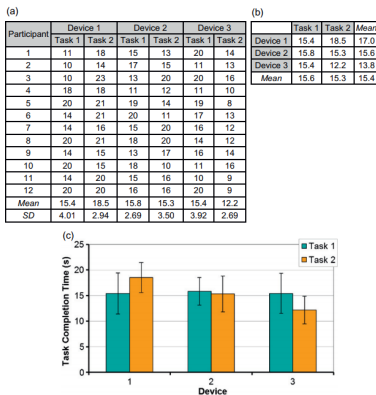


Figure: Source: Fg. 6.14 (Mackenzie)

Example: 3 x 2 within-subjects design

Three effects were observed - the main effect of device and task, and the interaction effect between device and task.

ANOVA Table for Task Completion Time (s)

	DF	Sum of Squares	Mean Square	F-Value	P-Value	Lambda	Power
Subject	11	134.778	12.253				
Device	2	121.028	60.514	5.865	.0091	11.731	.831
Device * Subject	22	226.972	10.317				
Task	1	.889	.889	.076	.7875	.076	.057
Task * Subject	11	128.111	11.646				
Device * Task	2	121.028	60.514	5.435	.0121	10.869	.798
Device * Task * Subject	22	244.972	11.135				

Figure: Source: Fg. 6.15 (Mackenzie)

Example: 3 x 2 within-subjects design

Reporting:

The grand mean for task completion time was 15.4 seconds. Device 3 was the fastest at 13.8 seconds, while device 1 was the slowest at 17.0 seconds. The main effect of device on task completion time was statistically significant ($F_{2,22} = 5.865, p < .01$). The task effect was modest, however. Task completion time was 15.6 seconds for task 1. Task 2 was slightly faster at 15.3 seconds; however, the difference was not statistically significant ($F_{1,11} = 0.076, ns$). The results by device and task are shown in Figure x. There was a significant Device \times Task interaction effect ($F_{2,22} = 5.435, p < .05$), which was due solely to the difference between device 1 task 2 and device 3 task 2, as determined by a Scheffé post hoc analysis.

Figure: Source: Fg. 6.16 (Mackenzie)

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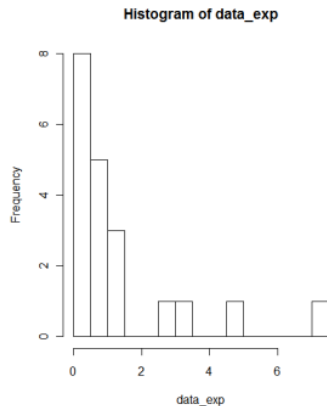
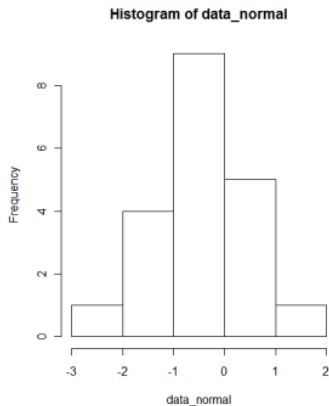
④ Examples: Non-parametric tests

Assumption check

- To decide whether we can use ANOVA (also called parametric tests), we check the assumption of **normality** and **homogeneity of variances**.

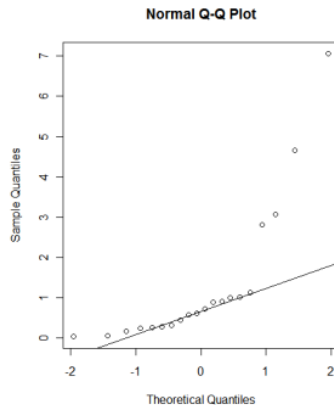
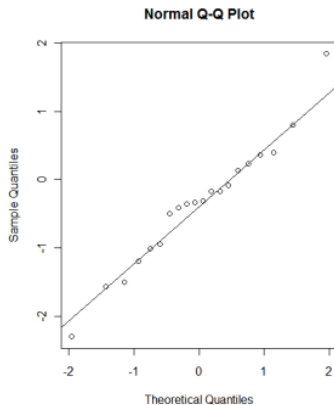
Normality check

- First easy way is to use **histogram** to check skewness



Normality check

- Another way is to use **Q-Q plot**.



Normality check

- Two common tests for normality is **Shapiro Wilk** and **Kolmogorov-Smirnov** test
- Shapiro-Wilk is more appropriate for small sample sizes (< 50)
- For example, the null hypothesis of Shapiro-Wilk is that samples are taken from a normal distribution. Here, **the p-value is larger than .05, thus is safe to say it's normal.** The null hypothesis is same for Kolmogorov-Smirnov

Tests of Normality

Course		Kolmogorov-Smirnov ^a			Shapiro-Wilk		
		Statistic	df	Sig.	Statistic	df	Sig.
Time	Beginner	.177	10	.200 [*]	.964	10	.827
	Intermediate	.166	10	.200 [*]	.969	10	.882
	Advanced	.151	10	.200 [*]	.965	10	.837

a. Lilliefors Significance Correction

*. This is a lower bound of the true significance.

Homogeneity of variances

- t-test and ANOVA can handle differences in variances up to 4 times between smallest and largest (Howell, 2007)
- In a **between-subject** experiment, tests that can be use is **Levene's test** and **Bartlett's test** (p-value over 0.05 means that the variances are equal)
- In a **repeated measures** experiment, **Sphericity test** is used instead (p-value over .05 means that sphericity has not been violated). Note that in sphericity test, factors must have **more than 2 levels**.

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Non-parametric tests for ordinal data

- **Non-parametric tests** make no assumptions for probability distribution
- Downsides of non-parametric tests are **loss of information**
- For example, 49, 81, 82 are transformed to 1, 2, 3
- In HCI, non-parametric tests are often used for **questionnaires data** (e.g., using Likert scale) since they are **ordinal** data.

Non-parametric tests for ordinal data

Four most common non-parametric procedures that work based on the number of conditions and design

Design	Conditions	
	2	3 or more
Between-subjects (independent samples)	Mann-Whitney U	Kruskal-Wallis
Within-subjects (correlated samples)	Wilcoxon Signed-Rank	Friedman

Figure: Source: Fg. 6.29 (Mackenzie)

Example: Mann-Whitney U

10 Mac users and 10 PC users are interviewed about their political views on a 10-point linear scale (1 = very left, 2 = very right). Turns out PC users are a little more "right-leaning"!

Mac Users	PC Users
2	4
3	6
2	5
4	4
9	8
2	3
5	4
3	2
4	4
3	5

Figure: Source: Fg. 6.30 (Mackenzie)

Example: Mann-Whitney U

- Given 2 levels and between subject designs, **Mann-Whitney U** is suitable
- Here we found that $p = .1418$, thus we conclude that no differences were found.

(a)

Mann-Whitney U for Response

Grouping Variable: Category for Response

U	31.000
U Prime	69.000
Z-Value	-1.436
P-Value	.1509
Tied Z-Value	-1.469
Tied P-Value	.1418
# Ties	4

Figure: Source: Fg. 6.31 (Mackenzie)

Example: Wilcoxon Signed-Rank

10 users rated the design of two media players on a 10-point linear scale (1 = not cool, 10 = really cool). Which test should we use?

Mac Users	PC Users
2	4
3	6
2	5
4	4
9	8
2	3
5	4
3	2
4	4
3	5

Figure: Source: Fg. 6.32 (Mackenzie)

Example: Wilcoxon Signed-Rank

The Wilcoxon Signed-Rank test found that $p = .0242$, thus we conclude that no differences were found.

(a)

Wilcoxon Signed Rank Test for MPA, MPB

# 0 Differences	2
# Ties	2
Z-Value	-2.240
P-Value	.0251
Tied Z-Value	-2.254
Tied P-Value	.0242

Figure: Source: Fg. 6.33 (Mackenzie)

Example: Kruskal-Wallis

Is it significant?

A20-29	A30-39	A40-49
9	7	4
9	3	5
4	5	5
9	3	2
6	2	2
3	1	1
8	4	2
9	7	2

Figure: Source: Fg. 6-34 (Mackenzie).

(a)

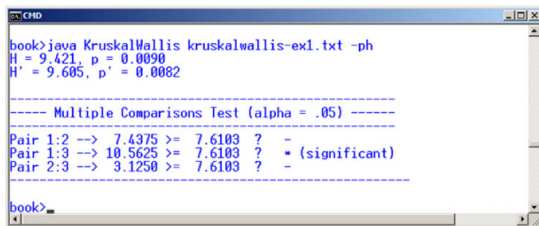
Kruskal-Wallis Test for Acceptability Grouping Variable: Category for Preference

DF	2
# Groups	3
# Ties	7
H	9.421
P-Value	.0090
H corrected for ties	9.605
Tied P-Value	.0082

Figure: Source: Fg. 6-35 (Mackenzie).

Example: Kruskal-Wallis

Since there are three conditions, we can further run post-hoc tests to find out the differences in pair. Here, we found the difference between group 1 and 3.



```

book>java KruskalWallis kruskalwallis-ex1.txt -ph
H = 9.421, p = 0.0090
H' = 9.605, p' = 0.0082

----- Multiple Comparisons Test (alpha = .05) -----
Pair 1:2 --> 7.4375 >= 7.6103 ? -
Pair 1:3 --> 10.5625 >= 7.6103 ? = (significant)
Pair 2:3 --> 3.1250 >= 7.6103 ? -
  
```

Figure: Source: Fg. 6.36 (Mackenzie)

Example: Friedman Test

So, what's the conclusion?

Participant	A	B	C	D
1	66	80	67	73
2	79	64	61	66
3	67	58	61	67
4	71	73	54	75
5	72	66	59	78
6	68	67	57	69
7	71	68	59	64
8	74	69	69	66

Friedman Test for 4 Variables

DF	3
# Groups	4
# Ties	2
Chi Square	8.475
P-Value	.0372
Chi Square corrected for ties	8.692
Tied P-Value	.0337

```

CHD
book>java Friedman friedman-ex1.txt -ph
H(3) = 8.475, p = 0.0372
H'(3) = 8.692, p' = 0.0337

----- Pairwise Comparisons (using Conover's F) -----
Pair 1:2 --> abs( 3.063 - 2.438) > 1.132 ? =
Pair 1:3 --> abs( 3.063 - 1.438) > 1.132 ? = * (significant)
Pair 1:4 --> abs( 3.063 - 3.063) > 1.132 ? =
Pair 2:3 --> abs( 2.438 - 1.438) > 1.132 ? =
Pair 2:4 --> abs( 2.438 - 3.063) > 1.132 ? =
Pair 3:4 --> abs( 1.438 - 3.063) > 1.132 ? = * (significant)
book>
  
```

Figure: Source: Fg. 6-(37-39) (Mackenzie).

What's next

- Couple of workshops for ANOVA. Please take a look at the **Tutorials** folder before coming to the class. Make sure you have **JASP** installed.
- After we finish ANOVA, we gonna work on interaction and modeling, download **GoFitts.jar** from the **Download** folder and make sure you can run it (you need Java).

Questions