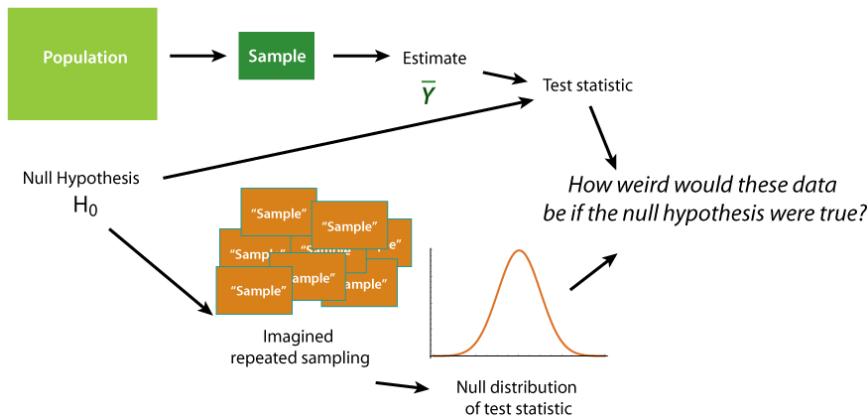


# Hypothesis testing

Chapter 6

Hypothesis testing asks how unusual it is to get data that differ from the null hypothesis.

If the data would be quite unlikely under  $H_0$ , we reject  $H_0$ .



Hypotheses are about populations, but are tested with data from samples

Hypothesis testing usually assumes that sampling is random.

**Null hypothesis:** a specific statement about a population parameter made for the purposes of argument.

**Alternate hypothesis:** represents all other possible parameter values except that stated in the null hypothesis.

A good null hypothesis would be interesting if proven wrong.

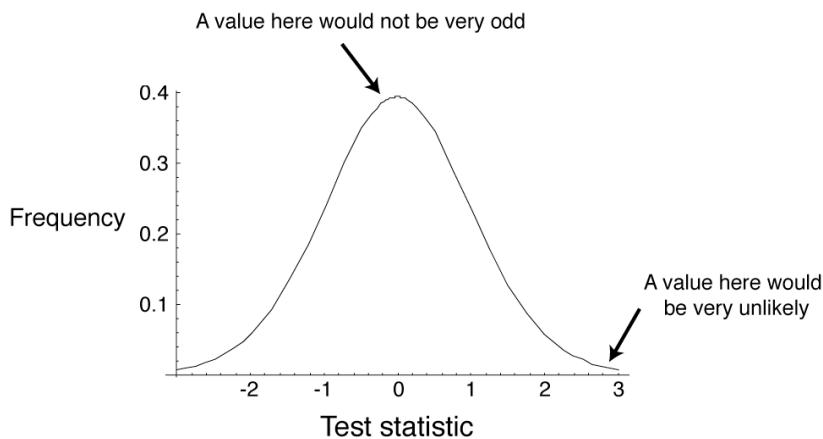
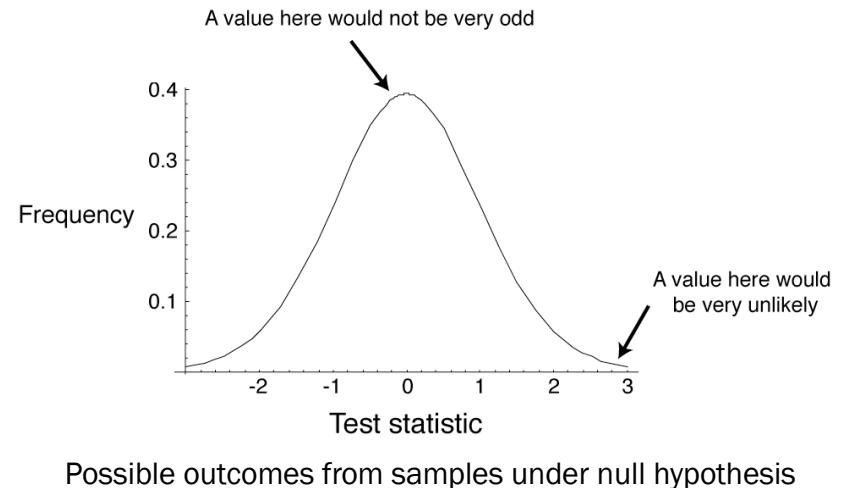
The *null hypothesis* is usually the simplest statement, whereas the *alternative hypothesis* is usually the statement of greatest interest.

A null hypothesis is specific; an alternate hypothesis is not.

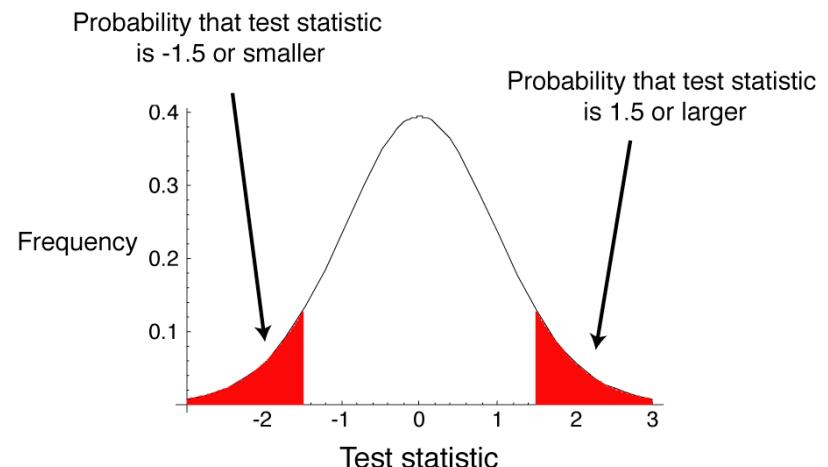
# Test Statistic

A number calculated to represent the match between a set of data and the null hypothesis

Can be compared to a general distribution to infer probability



# *P*-value



A *P*-value is the probability of getting the data, or something as or more unusual, if the null hypothesis were true.

## How to find *P*-values

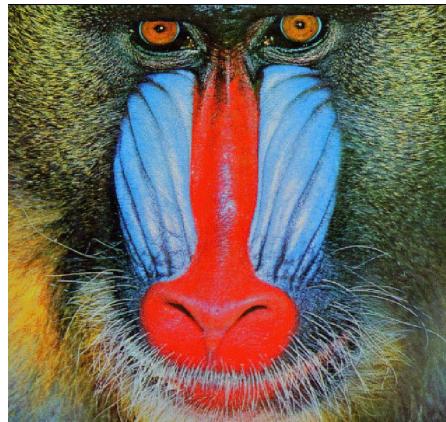
Simulation

Parametric tests

Permutation

## Hypothesis testing: an example

Does a red shirt help win wrestling?



## The experiment and the results

Animals use red as a sign of aggression

Does red influence the outcome of wrestling, taekwondo, and boxing?

- 16 of 20 rounds had more red-shirted than blue-shirted winners in these sports in the 2004 Olympics
- Shirt color was randomly assigned

## Stating the hypotheses

$H_0$ : Red- and blue-shirted athletes are equally likely to win (*proportion* = 0.5).

$H_A$ : Red- and blue-shirted athletes are not equally likely to win (*proportion*  $\neq$  0.5).

## Estimating the value

16 of 20 is a proportion of  
*proportion* = 0.8

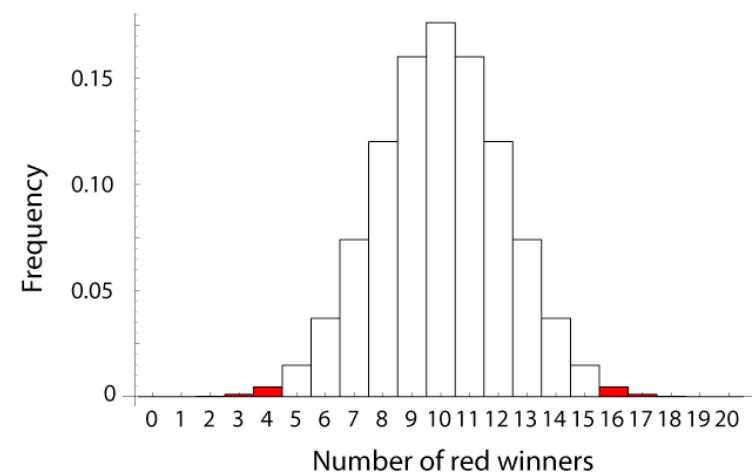
This is a discrepancy of 0.3 from the proportion proposed by the null hypothesis, *proportion* = 0.5

Is this discrepancy by chance alone?:

Estimating the probability of such an extreme result

The *null distribution* for a test statistic is the probability distribution of alternative outcomes when a random sample is taken from a population corresponding to the null expectation.

The null distribution of the sample number of red wins



## Calculating the $P$ -value from the null distribution

The  $P$ -value is calculated as

$$P = 2 \times [\Pr(16) + \Pr(17) + \Pr(18) + \Pr(19) + \Pr(20)] = 0.012.$$

## Statistical significance

The significance level,  $\alpha$ , is a probability used as a criterion for rejecting the null hypothesis.

If the  $P$ -value for a test is less than or equal to  $\alpha$ , then the null hypothesis is rejected.

## Significance for the red shirt example

$$P = 0.012$$

$\alpha$  is often 0.05

$P < \alpha$ , so we can reject the null hypothesis

Athletes in red shirts were more likely to win.

## Larger samples give more information

A larger sample will tend to give and estimate with a smaller confidence interval

A larger sample will give more power to reject a false null hypothesis

## Hypothesis testing: another example

Do dogs resemble their owners?



## Sample R code for doing this simulation

(Note: This is not the most efficient code for this!)

```
binarySample = function(n, prob){  
  results = rep(NA,n)  
  for(i in 1:n){  
    if(runif(1) < prob) results[i] = "red"  
    else  
      results[i] = "blue"  
  }  
  length(which(results=="red"))  
}  
  
numreps=10000  
resultsDF = data.frame(numberRedWins =  
  replicate(numreps, binarySample(20,.5)))
```

Common wisdom holds that dogs resemble their owners. Is this true?

41 dog owners approached in parks; photos taken of dog and owner separately

Photo of owner and dog, along with another photo of dog, shown to students to match

## Hypotheses

$H_0$ : The proportion of correct matches is *proportion* = 0.5.

$H_A$ : The proportion of correct matches is different from *proportion* = 0.5.

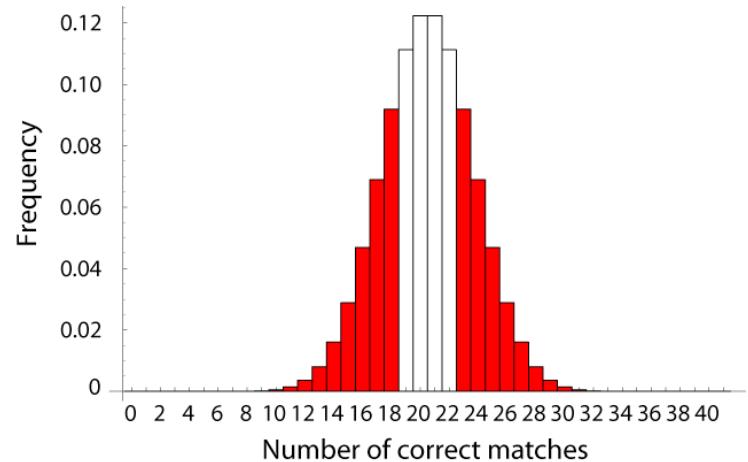
## Estimating the proportion

$$\text{sample proportion} = \frac{23}{41} = 0.56$$

## Data

Of 41 matches, 23 were correct and 18 were incorrect.

## Null distribution for dog/owner resemblance



## The $P$ -value:

$$P = 0.53$$

Jargon

We do not reject the null hypothesis that dogs do not resemble their owners.

## Significance level

The acceptable probability of rejecting a true null hypothesis

Called  $\alpha$

For many purposes,  $\alpha = 0.05$  is acceptable.  $\alpha$  is somewhat arbitrarily chosen by researchers.

## Type I error

Rejecting a true null hypothesis

Probability of Type I error is  $\alpha$  (the significance level)

## Type II error

Not rejecting a false null hypothesis

The probability of a Type II error is  $\beta$ .

The smaller  $\beta$ , the more *power* a test has.

Power increases with more information (i.e. with larger sample size)

## Power

The ability of a test to reject a false null hypothesis

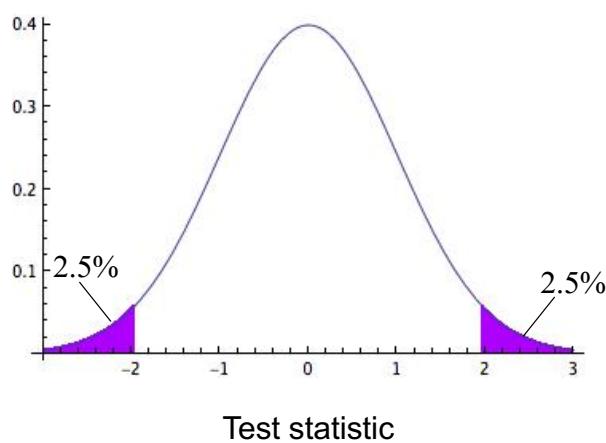
$$\text{Power} = 1 - \beta$$

## One- and two-tailed tests

Most tests are *two-tailed tests*.

This means that a deviation in either direction would reject the null hypothesis.

Normally  $\alpha$  is divided into  $\alpha/2$  on one side and  $\alpha/2$  on the other.



## One-tailed tests

Only used when the other tail is nonsensical

For example, comparing grades on a multiple choice test to that expected by random guessing

## Critical value

The value of a test statistic beyond which the null hypothesis can be rejected

We never “accept the null hypothesis”

# “Statistically significant”

$$P < \alpha$$

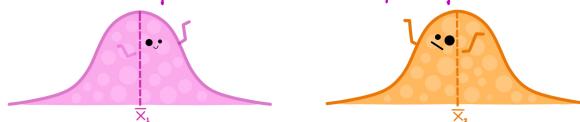
We can “reject the null hypothesis”

LET'S START  
**HERE:** if random samples are drawn from populations  
w/ the same mean...

Then it is more likely that the 2 sample means  
will be close together...  
(i.e. the same population)



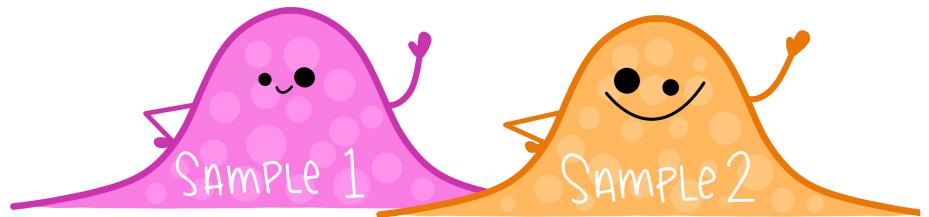
...and it is less likely (but always possible!) that  
the sample means will be far apart.



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## 2-SAMPLE T-TESTS

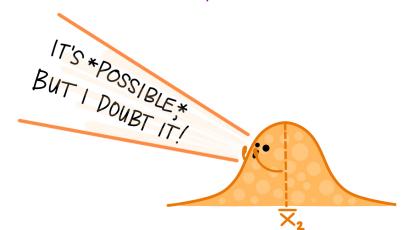
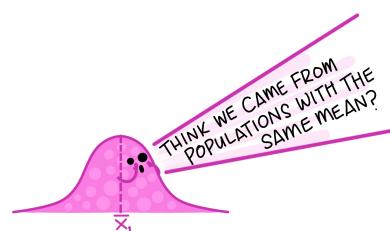
teaching assistants:



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in OTHER WORDS... The more different the sample means are\*, the less likely it is they were drawn from populations w/ the same mean.

\*(when taking into account sample spread + size,  
assuming we've randomly sampled)



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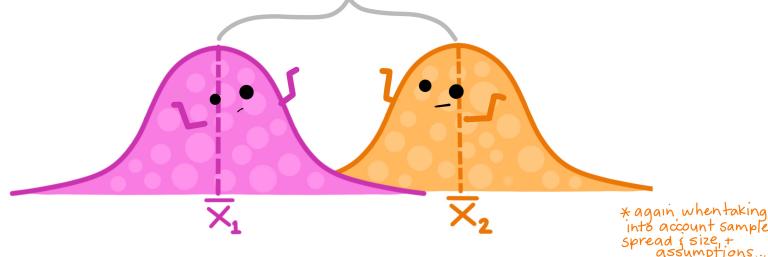
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So for our 2 random samples, we ask:

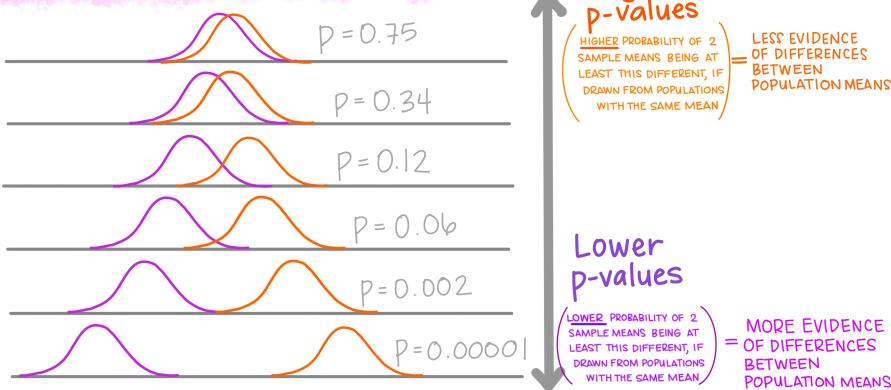
WHAT IS THE PROBABILITY OF GETTING 2 SAMPLE MEANS THAT ARE AT LEAST THIS DIFFERENT\*,

if they were actually drawn from populations w/ the same mean?



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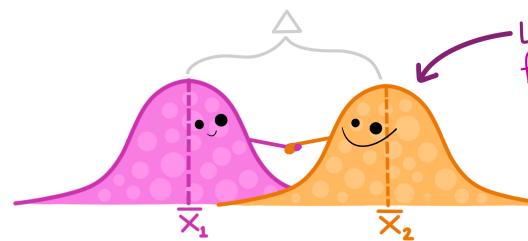
## P-VALUES, SCHEMATICALLY:



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That's our p-value!

WHAT IS THE PROBABILITY OF GETTING 2 SAMPLE MEANS THAT ARE AT LEAST THIS DIFFERENT,  
if they were actually drawn from populations w/ the same mean?



LIKE: If a 2-sample t-test for these samples yields  $p = 0.03$ , that means there is a 3% chance of getting means that are at least this different, if they're drawn from populations with the same mean.

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## Question:

WHEN DO WE HAVE ENOUGH EVIDENCE TO SAY THERE IS A SIGNIFICANT DIFFERENCE?

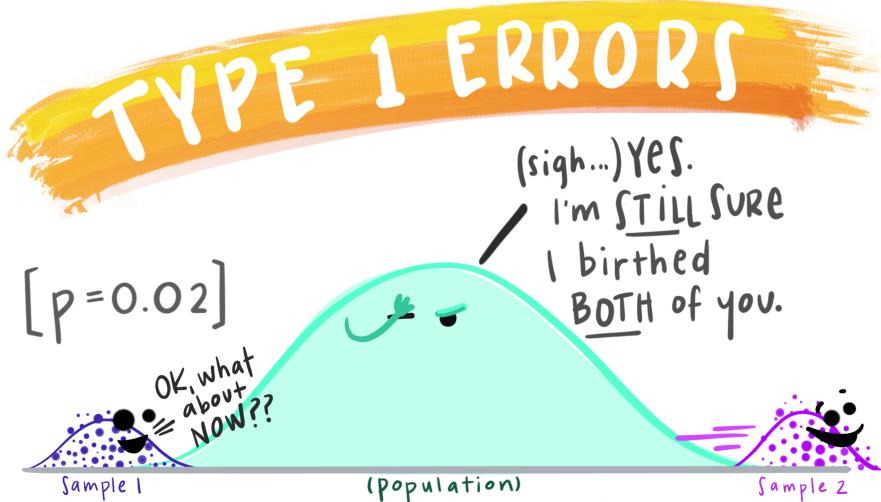
## Answer:

WHEN OUR P-VALUE IS BELOW OUR SELECTED SIGNIFICANCE LEVEL ( $\alpha$ ), USUALLY (BUT NOT ALWAYS) = 0.05.

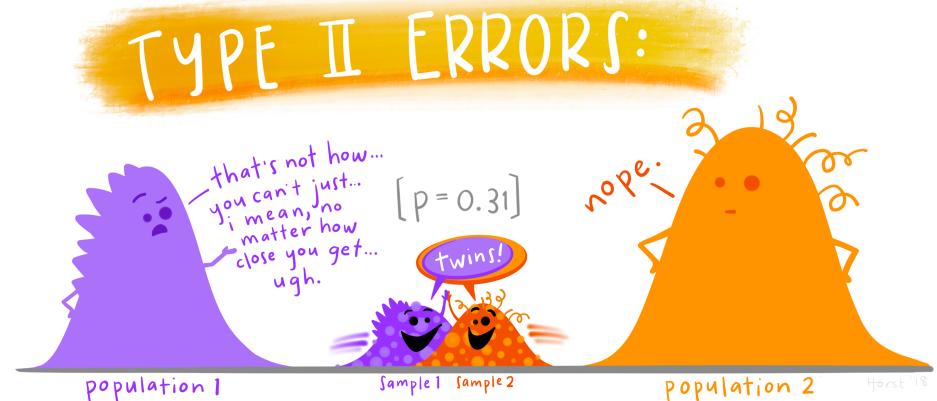
## Which means:

IF THE PROBABILITY (p-value) OF FINDING AT LEAST OUR DIFFERENCE IN SAMPLE MEANS (IF THEY WERE DRAWN FROM POPULATIONS WITH THE SAME MEANS) IS LESS THAN 5%, THAT'S ENOUGH EVIDENCE FOR US TO DECIDE THEY ARE LIKELY FROM POPULATIONS WITH UNEQUAL MEANS.

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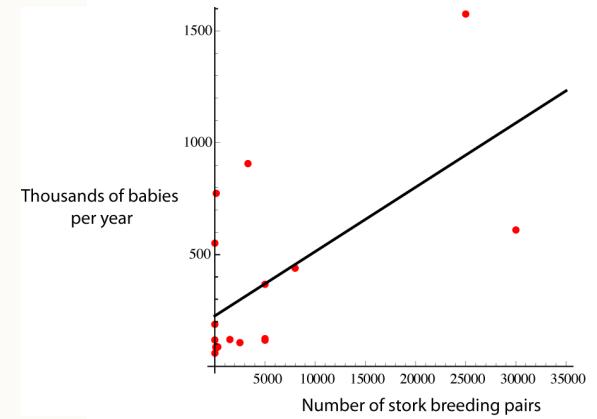
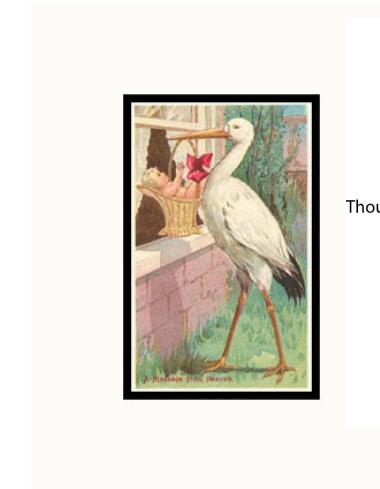
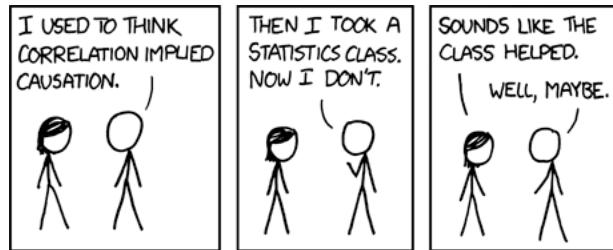
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Statistical significance ≠  
Biological importance

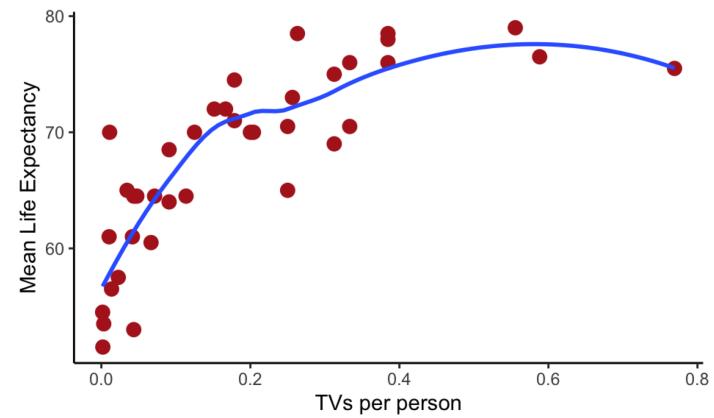
Significant	Important	Unimportant
	Polio vaccine reduces incidence of polio	Things you don't care about, or already well known things:  <b>BRIEFS</b> <b>Study Shows Frequent Sex Enhances Pregnancy Chances</b> <small>By The Associated Press BOSTON — A study that researchers say gives the best estimate ever of nature's window of fertility found that women's fertility ranged from two days in a menstrual cycle to 10 or more. The best day for conception is possible if a woman has intercourse on the five days before ovulation as well as on the day</small>
Insignificant	Small study shows a possible effect, leading to larger study which finds significance.  or Large study showing no effect of drug that was thought to be beneficial.	Studies with small sample size and high $P$ -value  or Things you don't care about

Correlation does not automatically imply causation

Correlation does not automatically imply causation



Life expectancy by country:



## Confounding variable

An unmeasured variable  
that may be the cause of  
both  $X$  and  $Y$

Observations vs.  
Experiments