# Welcome to Week #8!

# Foundations for Inference - How well can we really know anything?

\*\*Part 2 updated!\*\*

# Last week: Set the Hypothesis

## Summary: Set the hypothesis

The general outline of the process:

- 1. Set the hypotheses.
  - For a single proportion this will look like:

H₀: μ = null value

H<sub>A</sub>: μ < or > or ≠ null value

- 2. Check assumptions and conditions
- 3. Calculate a test statistic and a p-value
- 4. Make a decision, and interpret it in context
- If p-value < α, reject H<sub>0</sub>,
   there is sufficient evidence for [H<sub>A</sub>]
- If p-value > α, do not reject H<sub>0</sub>,
   there is not sufficient for evidence for [H<sub>A</sub>]

How do we frame our question into the "null" and "alternative" hypothesis framework? What are these different hypotheses?

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   there is sufficient evidence for [H₄]
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tell us something about what tests we will perform (more in examples)

## Summary: Set the hypothesis

The general outline of the process:

Are we interested in a hypothesis about the population mean (µ)?

1. Set the hypotheses.

For a single proportion this will look like:

H₀:µ= null value

 $H_A$ :  $\mu$  < or > or  $\neq$  null value

- 2. Check assumptions and conditions
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- If p-value < α, reject H₀,
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   (more in examples)</li>
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Proportion (p)? (Ch. 6)

Difference of 2 means and/ or paired data  $(\mu_1 - \mu_2)$ ? (Ch. 5)

Difference between observations and theorized results? (Ch. 6)

## Hypothesis Testing: Where we are going

The general outline of the process:

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# Hypothesis Testing: Where we are going

The general outline of the process: (a) normal, large sample (b) normal?, small sample 1. Set the hypotheses. For a single proportion this will look like. (c) observations & theory H₀: µ = null value  $H_A$ :  $u < or > or \neq null value$ **Test Statistics** 2. Check assumptions and conditions (a) **Z**-score -> P(**Z**) 3. Calculate a test statistic and a p-value (b) **T-Score** -> P(**T**) 4. Make a decision, and interpret it in context (c)  $\chi^2 -> P(\chi^2)$ If p-value  $< \alpha$ , reject  $H_0$ , there is sufficient evidence for [H<sub>A</sub>]

If p-value > α, do not reject H<sub>0</sub>,
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## Hypothesis Testing: Where we are going

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**Test Statistics** 

- (a) **Z-score -> P(Z)**
- (b) T-Score -> P(T)
- (c)  $\chi^2 -> P(\chi^2)$

Compare Z-score, T-score or  $\chi^2$  to our <u>level of significance -  $\alpha$  - to see if we can reject the null hypothesis (if the p-value of our test statistic <  $\alpha$ )</u>

## Anatomy of a test statistic

Only tricks are:

The general form of a test statistic is (1) picking what the point and null values are based on our hypotheses

point estimate – null value SE of point estimate

(2) what the form of the standard errors is based on what our underlying distribution looks like (normal, tdistribution,  $\chi^{2)}$ 

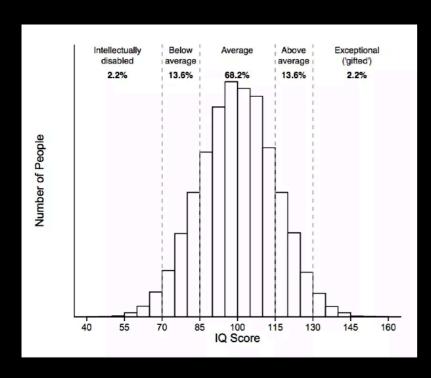
This construction is based on

- identifying the difference between a point estimate and an expected value if the null hypothesis was true, and
- standardizing that difference using the standard error of the point estimate.

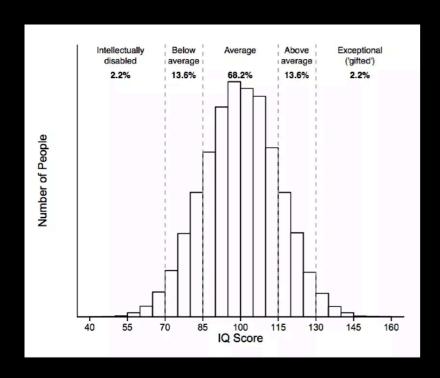
These two ideas will help in the construction of an appropriate test statistic for count data.

# **Examples!**

A principle at a certain school claims that the students in his school are above average intelligence. A random sample of 30 students' IQ scores have a mean score of 105. Is there sufficient evidence to support the principle's claims (ignoring the inherent biases in IQ tests)? The mean population IQ is 100 with a standard deviation of 15.

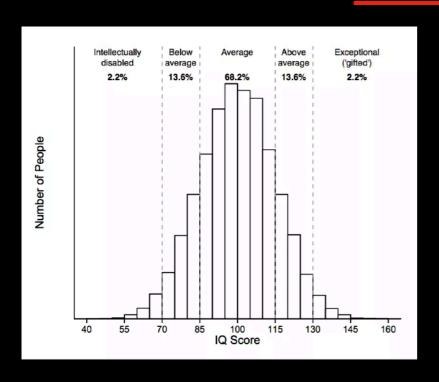


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**Step 1: Write down Null & Alternative Hypotheses** 

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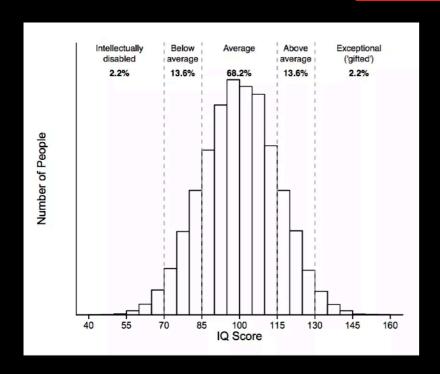
**Step 1: Write down Null & Alternative Hypotheses** 

The "default" or "previously assumed" claim is the <u>null hypothesis</u>

The <u>alternative hypothesis</u> is the claim to be tested

Ho: µstudents ≤ 100 Ha: µstudents > 100

A principle at a certain school claims that the students in his school are above average intelligence. A random sample of 30 students' IQ scores have a mean score of 105. Is there sufficient evidence to support the principle's claims (ignoring the inherent biases in IQ tests)? The mean population IQ is 100 with a standard deviation of 15.



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H<sub>0</sub>: µ<sub>students</sub> ≤ 100

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Step 2: Write down assumptions & conditions about the underlying population distribution

# Key Insights about how well we know the "average" number representing a sample:

Lets say we want to know the average observation from a random sample taken from a population (usually the case, very rarely can we sample the entirety of the population):

\*IF\* the samples are independent (e.g. randomly sampled) — "hand-wavy" and not \*IF\* the sample size is "large enough" (typically > 30 observations) rigorous \*IF\* the underlying population distribution is not strongly skewed (stay tuned for your future stats classes!)

#### **THEN**

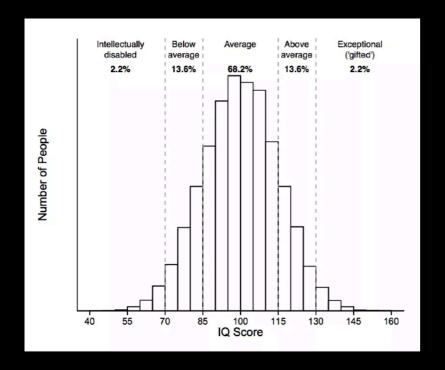
- 1. The "average" value of this population mean is the sample mean
- 2. The error on the measurement of the mean is given by the "standard error":

SE = s/n<sup>1/2</sup> If you are curious, this comes from: 
$$Var(\frac{1}{n}\sum X_i) = \frac{1}{n^2}\sum Var(X_i) = \frac{1}{n^2}\times\sum\sigma^2 = \frac{n}{n^2}\sigma^2 = \frac{\sigma^2}{n}$$

Where "s" is the standard deviation of the sample & n is the number of samples

In practice we have to assume "s" is the standard deviation of the sample.

A principle at a certain school claims that the students in his school are above average intelligence. A random sample of 30 students' IQ scores have a mean score of 105. Is there sufficient evidence to support the principle's claims (ignoring the inherent biases in IQ tests)? The mean population IQ is 100 with a standard deviation of 15.



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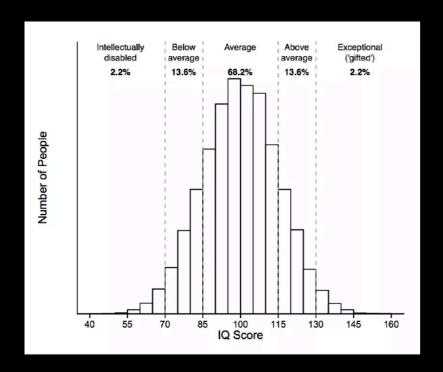
1. # of samples > 30

2. no evidence of strong skew

3. assume independent samples

use normal distribution, test statistic will be a Z-score

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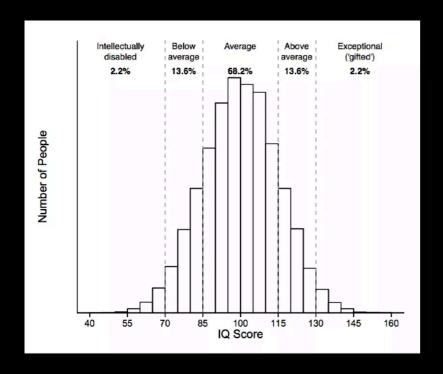
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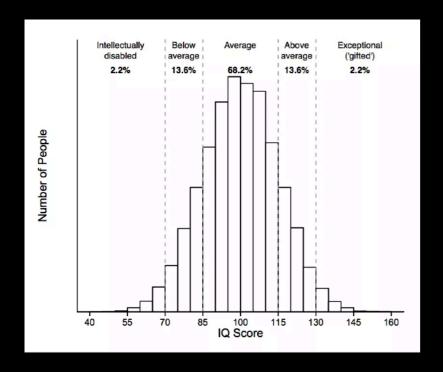
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Z = (point estimate - null value)/SE SE = SD/n<sup>1/2</sup>

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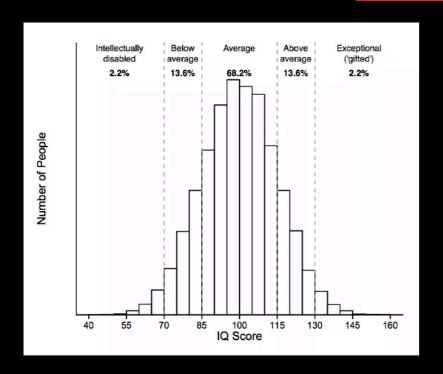
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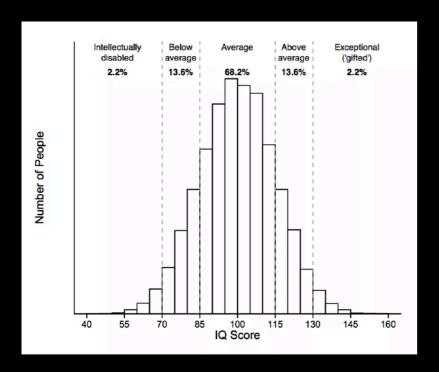
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- 1. point estimate = sample mean = 105
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- 3. SD = 15
- 4. n = 30

$$Z = (105 - 100)/(15/30^{1/2}) = 1.83$$

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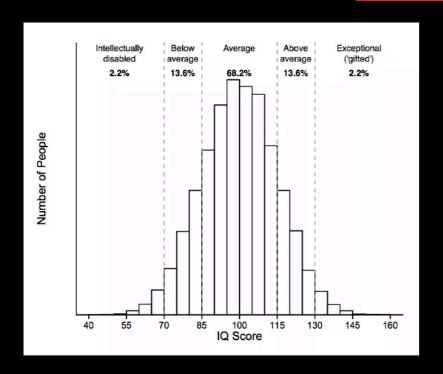
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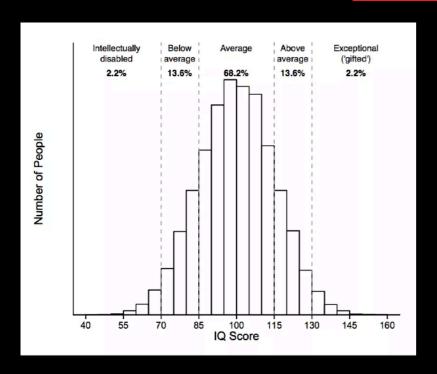
```
p-value = 1-pnorm(1.83)

OR

p-value =

1-pnorm(105, mean=100, sd=15/30**0.5)
```

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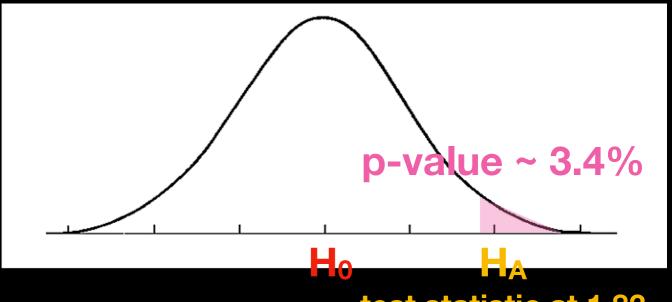
#### **Step 3.2: Calculate p-value**

**p-value = 1-pnorm(1.83)** 

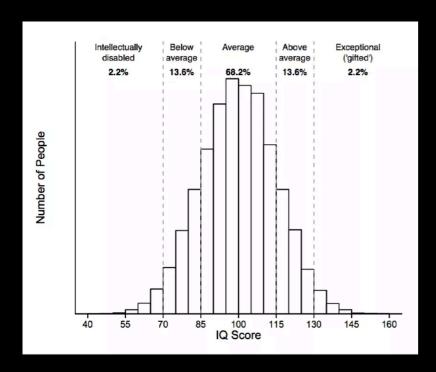
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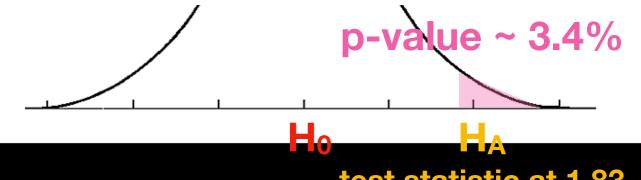
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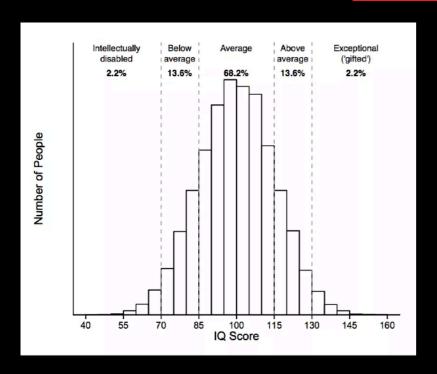
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"how likely is it that the measurement I have is by chance given that the underlying distribution follows what I assumed in the null hypothesis"



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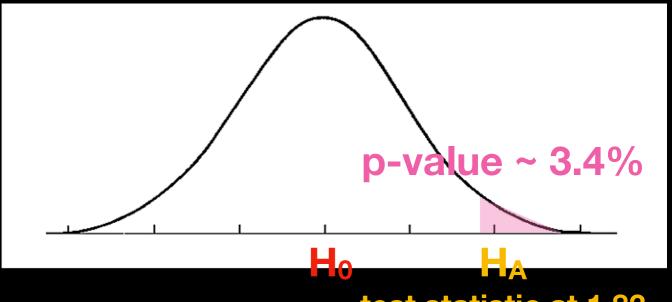
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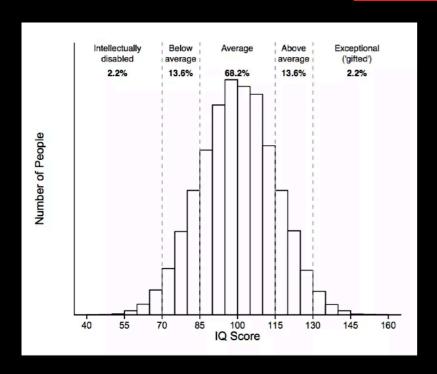
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H<sub>0</sub>: µ<sub>students</sub> ≤ 100 NOTE: one sided

H<sub>A</sub>: µ<sub>students</sub> > 100 (right handed) test!

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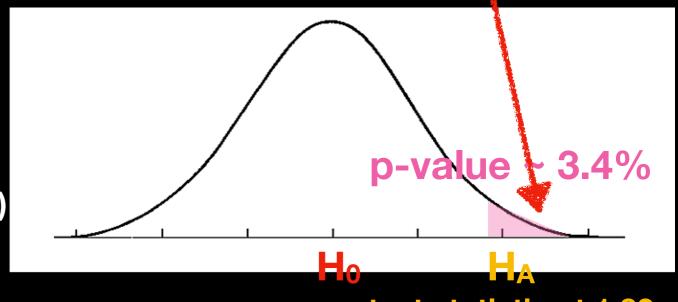
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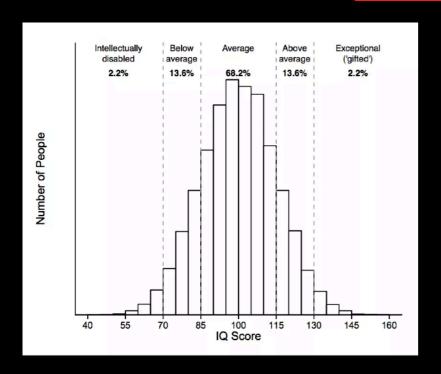
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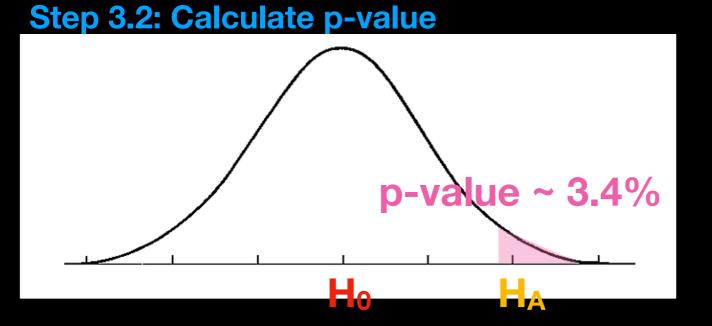
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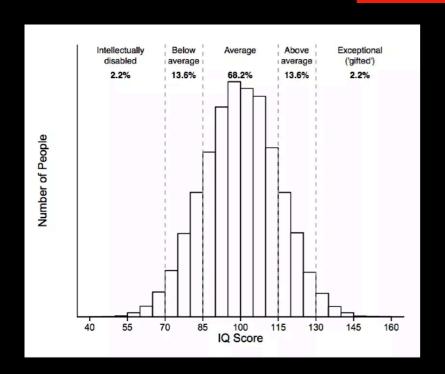
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Step 4: Compare p-value to level of significance & conclude

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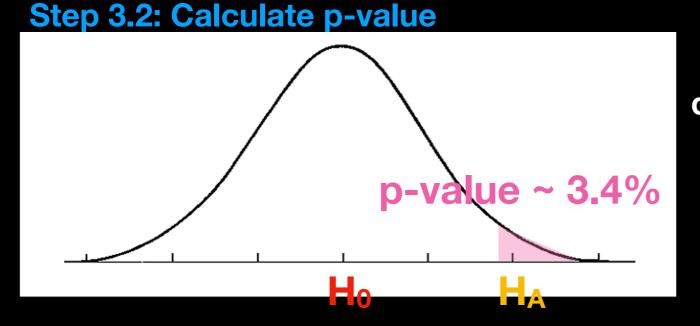
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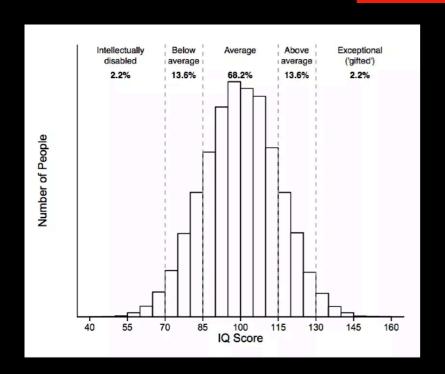
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 $\alpha$  = 0.05 (typical, unless otherwise specified)

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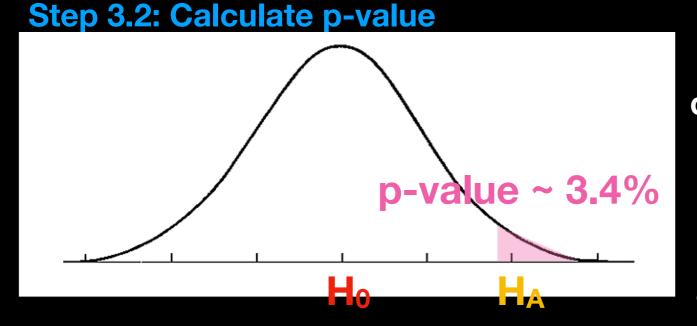
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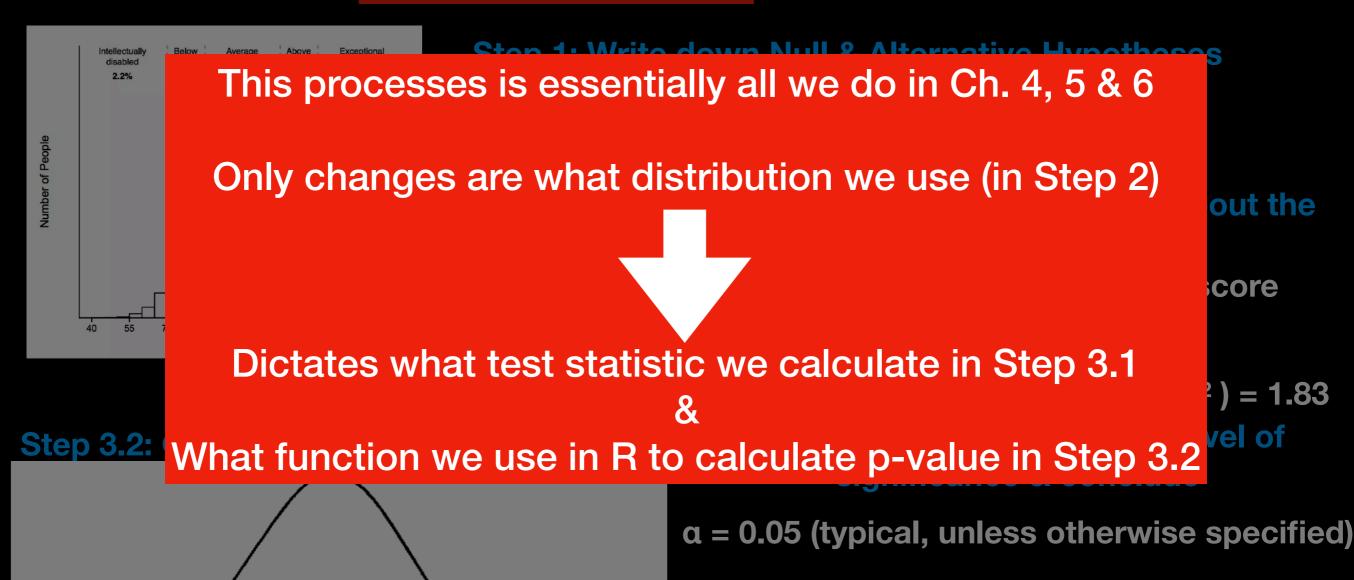
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0.034 < 0.05

so we say we reject the null hypothesis, and there is evidence that the students in the school have above average intelligence

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the school have above average intelligence

The administrator at your local hospital states that on weekends the average wait time for emergency room visits is at most 10 minutes. Based on discussions you have had with friends who have complained on how long they waited to be seen in the ER over a weekend, you dispute the administrator's claim. You decide to test you hypothesis. Over the course of a few weekends you record the wait time for 40 randomly selected patients. The average wait time for these 40 patients is 11 minutes with a standard deviation of 3 minutes. Do you have enough evidence to support your hypothesis that the average ER wait time exceeds 10 minutes? You opt to conduct the test at a 5% level of significance.

**Step 1: Write down Null & Alternative Hypotheses** 

Step 2: Write down assumptions & conditions about underlying population distribution

**Step 3.1: Calculate test statistic** 

**Step 3.2: Calculate p-value** 

Step 4: Compare p-value to level of significance & conclude

The administrator at your local hospital states that on weekends the average wait time for emergency room is longer than 10 minutes. Based on discussions you have had with friends who have mentioned it didn't take that long to be seen in the ER over a weekend, you dispute the administrator's claim. You decide to test you hypothesis. Over the course of a few weekends you record the wait time for 40 randomly selected patients. The average wait time for these 40 patients is 8 minutes with a standard deviation of 3 minutes. Do you have enough evidence to support your hypothesis that the average ER wait time is less than 10 minutes? You opt to conduct the test at a 5% level of significance.

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**Step 3.1: Calculate test statistic** 

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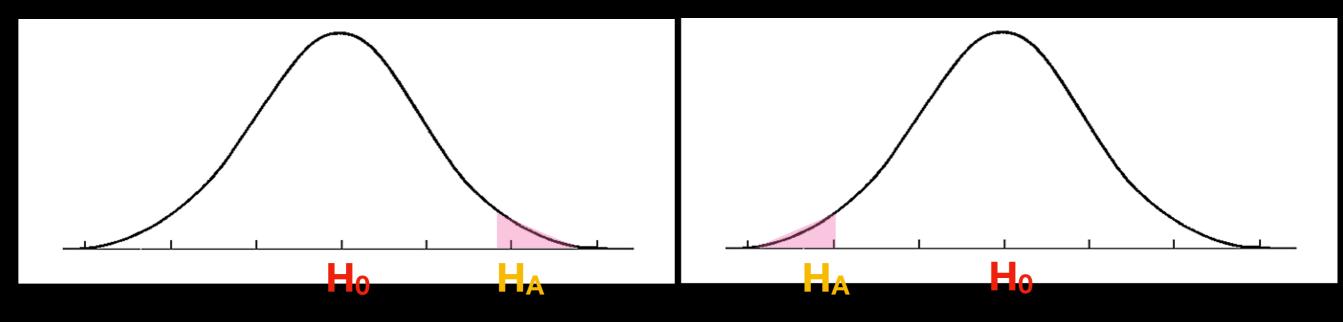
## Practice #2 & #2.5

 $H_0$ :  $\mu_{wait} \le 10 \text{ min}$ 

 $H_A$ :  $\mu_{wait} > 10 min$ 

 $H_0$ :  $\mu_{wait}$  ≥ 10 min

 $H_A$ :  $\mu_{wait} < 10 min$ 



"right tailed test"

"left tailed test"

#### What changes?

The administrator at your local hospital states that on weekends the average wait time for emergency room is exactly 10 minutes. Based on discussions you have had with friends who have mentioned it often does not take 10 minutes to be seen in the ER over a weekend, you dispute the administrator's claim. You decide to test you hypothesis. Over the course of a few weekends you record the wait time for 40 randomly selected patients. The average wait time for these 40 patients is 9 minutes with a standard deviation of 3 minutes. Do you have enough evidence to support your hypothesis that the average ER wait time is not 10 minutes? You opt to conduct the test at a 5% level of significance.

**Step 1: Write down Null & Alternative Hypotheses** 

Step 2: Write down assumptions & conditions about underlying population distribution

**Step 3.1: Calculate test statistic** 

Step 3.2: Calculate p-value

Step 4: Compare p-value to level of significance & conclude

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**Step 1: Write down Null & Alternative Hypotheses** 

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**Step 3.1: Calculate test statistic** 

Think on it for a moment!

Step 3.2: Calculate p-value

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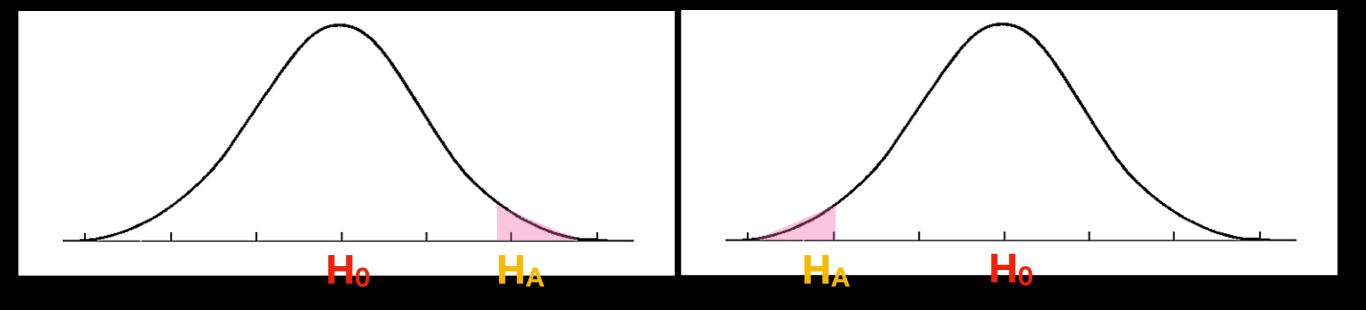
Step 3.2: Calculate p-value

### Practice #2 & #2.5 & #2.75

H<sub>0</sub>:  $\mu_{\text{wait}} \leq 10 \text{ min}$ 

 $H_A$ :  $\mu_{wait} > 10 min$ 

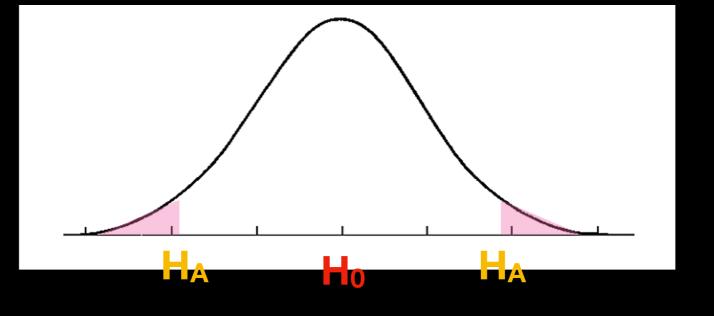
H<sub>0</sub>: μ<sub>wait</sub> ≥ 10 min H<sub>A</sub>: μ<sub>wait</sub> < 10 min



"right tailed test"

"left tailed test"





"two tailed test"

Is there a difference in serum uric acid levels between populations with and without Down's syndrome? A dataset from individuals without Down's syndrome has a sample mean of  $x_1 = 4.5$  and standard deviation  $SD_1 = 1$  for a sample of 35 individuals. The dataset from individuals with Down's syndrome has a sample mean of  $x_2 = 3.5$  and standard deviation  $SD_2 = 1.5$  for a sample of 45 individuals.

**Step 1: Write down Null & Alternative Hypotheses** 

Step 2: Write down assumptions & conditions about underlying population distribution

**Step 3.1: Calculate test statistic** 

**Step 3.2: Calculate p-value** 

An e-commerce research company claims that 60% or more graduate students have bought merchandise on-line. A consumer group is suspicious of the claim and thinks that the proportion is lower than 60%. A random sample of 80 graduate students show that only 22 students have ever done so. Is there enough evidence to show that the true proportion is lower than 60%? Conduct the test at a 0.05 level of significance.

**Step 1: Write down Null & Alternative Hypotheses** 

Step 2: Write down assumptions & conditions about underlying population distribution

**Step 3.1: Calculate test statistic** 

Step 3.2: Calculate p-value

# Hypothesis Testing Framework (Ch. 4-6)

The general outline of the process:

1. Set the hypotheses.

For a single proportion this will look like:

H₀: p = null value

H<sub>A</sub>: p < or > or ≠ null value

- 2. Check assumptions and conditions
- 3. Calculate a test statistic and a p-value
- 4. Make a decision, and interpret it in context
- If p-value < α, reject H₀,</li>
   there is sufficient evidence for [H₄]
- If p-value > α, do not reject H₀,
   there is not sufficient for evidence for [H₄]

#### **Decision errors**

Hypothesis tests are not flawless.

In the court system innocent people are sometimes wrongly convicted, and the guilty sometimes walk free. Similarly, we can make a wrong decision in statistical hypothesis tests as well.

The difference is that we have the tools necessary to quantify how often we make errors in statistics.

## Decision errors (cont.)

There are two competing hypotheses: the null and the alternative. In a hypothesis test, we make a decision about which might be true, but our choice might be incorrect.

		Decision	
		fail to reject $H_0$	reject $H_0$
Truth	$H_0$ true	<b>✓</b>	Type 1 Error
	$H_A$ true	Type 2 Error	<b>✓</b>

A Type 1 Error is rejecting the null hypothesis when  $H_0$  is true. A Type 2 Error is failing to reject the null hypothesis when  $H_A$  is true.

We (almost) never know if  $H_0$  or  $H_A$  is true, but we need to consider all possibilities.

### Hypothesis Test as a trial

If we again think of a hypothesis test as a criminal trial then it makes sense to frame the verdict in terms of the null and alternative hypotheses:

H<sub>0</sub>: Defendant is innocent

H<sub>A</sub>: Defendant is guilty

Which type of error is being committed in the following circumstances?

Declaring the defendant innocent when they are actually guilty

Declaring the defendant guilty when they are actually innocent

		Decision		
		fail to reject $H_0$	reject $H_0$	
Truth	$H_0$ true	<b>✓</b>	Type 1 Error	
	$H_A$ true	Type 2 Error	<b>✓</b>	

# Type 1 error rate

As a general rule we reject  $H_0$  when the p-value is less than 0.05, i.e. we use a significance level of 0.05,  $\alpha = 0.05$ .

This means that, for those cases where  $H_0$  is actually true, we do not want to incorrectly reject it more than 5% of those times.

In other words, when using a 5% significance level there is about 5% chance of making a Type 1 error if the null hypothesis is true. P(Type 1 error |  $H_0$  true) =  $\alpha$ 

This is why we prefer small values of  $\alpha$  -- increasing  $\alpha$  increases the Type 1 error rate.

# Choosing a significance level

Choosing a significance level for a test is important in many contexts, and the traditional level is 0.05. However, it is often helpful to adjust the significance level based on the application.

We may select a level that is smaller or larger than 0.05 depending on the consequences of any conclusions reached from the test.

If making a Type 1 Error is dangerous or especially costly, we should choose a small significance level (e.g. 0.01). Under this scenario we want to be very cautious about rejecting the null hypothesis, so we demand very strong evidence favoring  $H_A$  before we would reject  $H_0$ .

If a Type 2 Error is relatively more dangerous or much more costly than a Type 1 Error, then we should choose a higher significance level (e.g. 0.10). Here we want to be cautious about failing to reject H<sub>0</sub> when the null is actually false.

The average IQ of the adult population is at least 100. A researcher believes the average IQ of adults is lower. A random sample of 5 adults are tested and scored:

69, 79, 89, 99, 109 (SD = 15.81)

Is there enough evidence to suggest the average IQ of adults is lower based on this sample?

**Step 1: Write down Null & Alternative Hypotheses** 

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**Step 3.1: Calculate test statistic** 

Step 3.2: Calculate p-value

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69, 79, 89, 99, 109 (SD = 15.81)

Is there enough evidence to suggest the average IQ of adults is lower based on this sample?

Step 1: Write down Null & Alternative Hypotheses  $H_0$ :  $\mu \ge 100$ 

 $H_A$ :  $\mu < 100$ 

Step 2: Write down assumptions & conditions about underlying population distribution assume near normality, independence, #samples > 30, not strongly skewed

**Step 3.1: Calculate test statistic** 

Can use a "tdistribution" instead of normal distribution!

Step 3.2: Calculate p-value

