

## Statistical Significance II

# Hypothesis Testing

Notation:

# Hypothesis Testing

Notation:

What we expect:

$H_a$  (Alternative Hypothesis)

# Hypothesis Testing

Notation:

What we expect:

$H_a$  (Alternative Hypothesis)

What we test:

$H_0$  (Null Hypothesis)

# Hypothesis Testing

Notation:

What we expect:

$H_a$  (Alternative Hypothesis)

What we test:

$H_0$  (Null Hypothesis)

Examples:

# Hypothesis Testing

Notation:

What we expect:

$H_a$  (Alternative Hypothesis)

What we test:

$H_0$  (Null Hypothesis)

Examples:

► “Higher poverty rates increase incarceration rates”

# Hypothesis Testing

Notation:

What we expect:

$H_a$  (Alternative Hypothesis)

What we test:

$H_0$  (Null Hypothesis)

Examples:

- ▶ “Higher poverty rates increase incarceration rates”
- ▶ “Higher poverty rates change incarceration rates”

# Hypothesis Testing

Notation:

What we expect:

$H_a$  (Alternative Hypothesis)

What we test:

$H_0$  (Null Hypothesis)

Examples:

- ▶ “Higher poverty rates increase incarceration rates”
- ▶ “Higher poverty rates change incarceration rates”
- ▶ “Higher poverty rates decrease incarceration rates”



# Hypothesis Testing

Notation:

What we expect:

$H_a$  (Alternative Hypothesis)

What we test:

$H_0$  (Null Hypothesis)

Examples:

- ▶ “Higher poverty rates increase incarceration rates”
- ▶ “Higher poverty rates change incarceration rates”
- ▶ “Higher poverty rates decrease incarceration rates”

Corresponding nulls:

# Hypothesis Testing

Notation:

What we expect:

$H_a$  (Alternative Hypothesis)

What we test:

$H_0$  (Null Hypothesis)

Examples:

- ▶ “Higher poverty rates increase incarceration rates”
- ▶ “Higher poverty rates change incarceration rates”
- ▶ “Higher poverty rates decrease incarceration rates”

Corresponding nulls:

- ▶ “Higher poverty rates have no effect on or decrease incarceration rates”

# Hypothesis Testing

Notation:

What we expect:

$H_a$  (Alternative Hypothesis)

What we test:

$H_0$  (Null Hypothesis)

Examples:

- ▶ “Higher poverty rates increase incarceration rates”
- ▶ “Higher poverty rates change incarceration rates”
- ▶ “Higher poverty rates decrease incarceration rates”

Corresponding nulls:

- ▶ “Higher poverty rates have no effect on or decrease incarceration rates”
- ▶ “Higher poverty rates have no effect on incarceration rates”

# Hypothesis Testing

Notation:

What we expect:

$H_a$  (Alternative Hypothesis)

What we test:

$H_0$  (Null Hypothesis)

Examples:

- ▶ “Higher poverty rates increase incarceration rates”
- ▶ “Higher poverty rates change incarceration rates”
- ▶ “Higher poverty rates decrease incarceration rates”

Corresponding nulls:

- ▶ “Higher poverty rates have no effect on or decrease incarceration rates”
- ▶ “Higher poverty rates have no effect on incarceration rates”
- ▶ “Higher poverty rates have no effect on or increase incarceration rates”

# What do we do with a null hypothesis?

We can never say:

# What do we do with a null hypothesis?

We can never say:

1. Our hypothesis is true/correct.

# What do we do with a null hypothesis?

We can never say:

1. Our hypothesis is true/correct.
2. The null hypothesis is false.

# What do we do with a null hypothesis?

We can never say:

1. Our hypothesis is true/correct.
2. The null hypothesis is false.

Instead, we can say:



# What do we do with a null hypothesis?

We can never say:

1. Our hypothesis is true/correct.
2. The null hypothesis is false.

Instead, we can say:

1. There is OR is not significant evidence supporting our hypothesis.

# What do we do with a null hypothesis?

We can never say:

1. Our hypothesis is true/correct.
2. The null hypothesis is false.

Instead, we can say:

1. There is OR is not significant evidence supporting our hypothesis.
2. We can reject OR fail to reject the null hypothesis

# What do we do with a null hypothesis?

We can never say:

1. Our hypothesis is true/correct.
2. The null hypothesis is false.

Instead, we can say:

1. There is OR is not significant evidence supporting our hypothesis.
2. We can reject OR fail to reject the null hypothesis

## The next step: standard of evidence

How do we know what to make of our hypothesis and the null hypothesis?

## The next step: standard of evidence

How do we know what to make of our hypothesis and the null hypothesis?

We will run a statistical test designed to tell us how likely it is our results are due to random chance

## The next step: standard of evidence

How do we know what to make of our hypothesis and the null hypothesis?

We will run a statistical test designed to tell us how likely it is our results are due to random chance

A variety of tests:

## The next step: standard of evidence

How do we know what to make of our hypothesis and the null hypothesis?

We will run a statistical test designed to tell us how likely it is our results are due to random chance

A variety of tests:

- ▶ t-test

## The next step: standard of evidence

How do we know what to make of our hypothesis and the null hypothesis?

We will run a statistical test designed to tell us how likely it is our results are due to random chance

A variety of tests:

- ▶ t-test
- ▶ f-test



## The next step: standard of evidence

How do we know what to make of our hypothesis and the null hypothesis?

We will run a statistical test designed to tell us how likely it is our results are due to random chance

A variety of tests:

- ▶ t-test
- ▶ f-test
- ▶  $\chi^2$  test

## The next step: standard of evidence

How do we know what to make of our hypothesis and the null hypothesis?

We will run a statistical test designed to tell us how likely it is our results are due to random chance

A variety of tests:

- ▶ t-test
- ▶ f-test
- ▶  $\chi^2$  test

All give us a value we must interpret

What do we do with this value?

We impose a threshold.

What do we do with this value?

We impose a threshold.

If the result of the statistical test meets the established threshold:

## What do we do with this value?

We impose a threshold.

If the result of the statistical test meets the established threshold:

- ▶ then we have significance

## What do we do with this value?

We impose a threshold.

If the result of the statistical test meets the established threshold:

▶ then we have significance

If the result of the statistical test does not meet the established threshold:

## What do we do with this value?

We impose a threshold.

If the result of the statistical test meets the established threshold:

- ▶ then we have significance

If the result of the statistical test does not meet the established threshold:

- ▶ then we do not have significance

Where does this threshold come from?

Sir Ronald A. Fisher





Where does this threshold come from?

Sir Ronald A. Fisher



## Where does this threshold come from?

- ▶ Originally a “rough guide” for the strength of evidence against the null hypothesis.

## Where does this threshold come from?

- ▶ Originally a “rough guide” for the strength of evidence against the null hypothesis.
- ▶ Honestly, very arbitrary.

## Where does this threshold come from?

- ▶ Originally a “rough guide” for the strength of evidence against the null hypothesis.
- ▶ Honestly, very arbitrary.
  - ▶ We use a 5% chance of a false positive.

## Where does this threshold come from?

- ▶ Originally a “rough guide” for the strength of evidence against the null hypothesis.
- ▶ Honestly, very arbitrary.
  - ▶ We use a 5% chance of a false positive.
  - ▶ Physicist use a .0005% threshold

## Where does this threshold come from?

- ▶ Originally a “rough guide” for the strength of evidence against the null hypothesis.
- ▶ Honestly, very arbitrary.
  - ▶ We use a 5% chance of a false positive.
  - ▶ Physicist use a .0005% threshold

We use a lower threshold because of sample size limitations and cost concerns.

## What do we do with the results from a test?

- ▶ Three “signs” of significance

## What do we do with the results from a test?

- ▶ Three “signs” of significance
- ▶ All are equivalent at the 5% threshold



## What do we do with the results from a test?

- ▶ Three “signs” of significance
  - ▶ All are equivalent at the 5% threshold
1.  $T\text{-statistic} > 1.96$  or  $t\text{-statistic} < -1.96$

## What do we do with the results from a test?

- ▶ Three “signs” of significance
  - ▶ All are equivalent at the 5% threshold
1. T-statistic  $> 1.96$  or t-statistic  $< -1.96$
  2. P-value  $< .05$

## What do we do with the results from a test?

- ▶ Three “signs” of significance
  - ▶ All are equivalent at the 5% threshold
1. T-statistic  $> 1.96$  or t-statistic  $< -1.96$
  2. P-value  $< .05$
  3. 95% confidence intervals do *not* include 0

## What do we do with the results from a test?

- ▶ Three “signs” of significance
  - ▶ All are equivalent at the 5% threshold
1. T-statistic  $> 1.96$  or t-statistic  $< -1.96$
  2. P-value  $< .05$
  3. 95% confidence intervals do *not* include 0

These ideas are all connected

- ▶ A p-value is computed from a t-statistic

## These ideas are all connected

- ▶ A p-value is computed from a t-statistic
- ▶ 95% confidence intervals are computed from (indirectly) t-statistics

## These ideas are all connected

- ▶ A p-value is computed from a t-statistic
- ▶ 95% confidence intervals are computed from (indirectly) t-statistics

What do they mean?

# The t-statistic

A statistic to evaluate if a mean or a difference in means when hypothesis testing



# The t-statistic

A statistic to evaluate if a mean or a difference in means when hypothesis testing

- ▶ Provides information on if what we observed matches what we expected

# The t-statistic

A statistic to evaluate if a mean or a difference in means when hypothesis testing

- ▶ Provides information on if what we observed matches what we expected

Significant: If the t-statistic is large (positive or negative), it means the difference between the groups is unlikely to have happened by random chance.

# The t-statistic

A statistic to evaluate if a mean or a difference in means when hypothesis testing

- ▶ Provides information on if what we observed matches what we expected

Significant: If the t-statistic is large (positive or negative), it means the difference between the groups is unlikely to have happened by random chance.

Not significant: If the t-statistic is small, it means the difference could easily be due to random variation.

## P-values

A p-value is a number that helps determine the significance of results when running a hypothesis test.

- ▶ More formally, the probability of observing our results if the null hypothesis were true.

Significant: A low p-value ( $\leq .05$ ) indicates we should reject the null hypothesis—there might be a real effect or difference.

## P-values

A p-value is a number that helps determine the significance of results when running a hypothesis test.

- ▶ More formally, the probability of observing our results if the null hypothesis were true.

Significant: A low p-value ( $\leq .05$ ) indicates we should reject the null hypothesis—there might be a real effect or difference.

Not significant: A high p-value ( $> .05$ ) suggests that there's not enough evidence to reject the null hypothesis, and any observed difference might be due to random chance.

## Confidence intervals are more complex

Assume we can not measure attitudes or features of everyone and that we will rely on a sample.

## Confidence intervals are more complex

Assume we can not measure attitudes or features of everyone and that we will rely on a sample.

- ▶ With a sample we can be wrong!

## Confidence intervals are more complex

Assume we can not measure attitudes or features of everyone and that we will rely on a sample.

- ▶ With a sample we can be wrong!
- ▶ There will be error.



## Confidence intervals are more complex

Assume we can not measure attitudes or features of everyone and that we will rely on a sample.

- ▶ With a sample we can be wrong!
- ▶ There will be error.
- ▶ But how close did we get?

## Confidence intervals are more complex

Assume we can not measure attitudes or features of everyone and that we will rely on a sample.

- ▶ With a sample we can be wrong!
- ▶ There will be error.
- ▶ But how close did we get?

A 95% confidence interval gives a range of values, that should, 95% of the time, contain the true value of what we are estimating.

## How to think about a confidence interval

- ▶ Assume we can repeat a survey 100 times.

## How to think about a confidence interval

- ▶ Assume we can repeat a survey 100 times.
- ▶ Assume we compute a confidence interval for each survey

## How to think about a confidence interval

- ▶ Assume we can repeat a survey 100 times.
- ▶ Assume we compute a confidence interval for each survey
- ▶ 95% of those intervals would contain the true population mean.

## How do we compute a confidence interval

Two components:

# How do we compute a confidence interval

Two components:

1. A mean, coefficient, or mean difference

# How do we compute a confidence interval

Two components:

1. A mean, coefficient, or mean difference
2. A measure of error



## How do we compute a confidence interval

Two components:

1. A mean, coefficient, or mean difference
2. A measure of error

The confidence interval is computed by adding and subtracting the measure of error (and a standard value).

## How do we compute a confidence interval

Two components:

1. A mean, coefficient, or mean difference
2. A measure of error

The confidence interval is computed by adding and subtracting the measure of error (and a standard value).

So, let estimate heights of sixth grade students. We get a mean of 50in with a standard error of 5in would have the following CI:

## How do we compute a confidence interval

Two components:

1. A mean, coefficient, or mean difference
2. A measure of error

The confidence interval is computed by adding and subtracting the measure of error (and a standard value).

So, let estimate heights of sixth grade students. We get a a mean of 50in with a standard error of 5in would have the following CI:

$$\text{Upper CI} = 50 + 1.96 * 5 = 59.8$$

$$\text{Lower CI} = 50 - 1.96 * 5 = 40.2$$

## How do we compute a confidence interval

Two components:

1. A mean, coefficient, or mean difference
2. A measure of error

The confidence interval is computed by adding and subtracting the measure of error (and a standard value).

So, let estimate heights of sixth grade students. We get a a mean of 50in with a standard error of 5in would have the following CI:

$$\text{Upper CI} = 50 + 1.96 * 5 = 59.8$$

$$\text{Lower CI} = 50 - 1.96 * 5 = 40.2$$

We would write this as “95% CI [40.2, 59.8]”

## Interpretation:

- ▶ We can be 95% confident that the true average height of students is between 40.2in and 59.8in.

## Interpretation:

- ▶ We can be 95% confident that the true average height of students is between 40.2in and 59.8in.
- ▶ This is **not absolute certainty**.

## Interpretation:

- ▶ We can be 95% confident that the true average height of students is between 40.2in and 59.8in.
- ▶ This is **not absolute certainty**.

A 95% confidence interval is a way to estimate the true value of a population parameter, providing a range that likely includes the true value based on your sample data.

## Example 1

Testing the impact of a college degree on voting behavior.



## Example 1

Testing the impact of a college degree on voting behavior.

Hypotheses:

## Example 1

Testing the impact of a college degree on voting behavior.

Hypotheses:

$H_a$ : Holding a college degree increase voter turnout.

## Example 1

Testing the impact of a college degree on voting behavior.

Hypotheses:

$H_a$ : Holding a college degree increase voter turnout.  $H_0$ : Holding a college degree has no effect on voter turnout.

## Example 1

Testing the impact of a college degree on voting behavior.

Hypotheses:

$H_a$ : Holding a college degree increase voter turnout.  $H_0$ : Holding a college degree has no effect on voter turnout.

Results:

## Example 1

Testing the impact of a college degree on voting behavior.

Hypotheses:

$H_a$ : Holding a college degree increase voter turnout.  $H_0$ : Holding a college degree has no effect on voter turnout.

Results:

Difference: 20% increase in voter turnout.

## Example 1

Testing the impact of a college degree on voting behavior.

Hypotheses:

$H_a$ : Holding a college degree increase voter turnout.  $H_0$ : Holding a college degree has no effect on voter turnout.

Results:

Difference: 20% increase in voter turnout. p-value: 0.04; t-statistic: 5.23; 95% Confidence Interval: [17.23, 22.14]

## Example 1

Testing the impact of a college degree on voting behavior.

Hypotheses:

$H_a$ : Holding a college degree increase voter turnout.  $H_0$ : Holding a college degree has no effect on voter turnout.

Results:

Difference: 20% increase in voter turnout. p-value: 0.04; t-statistic: 5.23; 95% Confidence Interval: [17.23, 22.14]

Conclusion:

## Example 1

Testing the impact of a college degree on voting behavior.

Hypotheses:

$H_a$ : Holding a college degree increase voter turnout.  $H_0$ : Holding a college degree has no effect on voter turnout.

Results:

Difference: 20% increase in voter turnout. p-value: 0.04; t-statistic: 5.23; 95% Confidence Interval: [17.23, 22.14]

Conclusion:

A college degree increases voting by 20% (95% CI [17.23, 22.14]). This is a statistically significant effect.



## Example 2

Scenario:

Testing the relationship between anger and support for violence

## Example 2

Scenario:

Testing the relationship between anger and support for violence

Hypotheses:

## Example 2

Scenario:

Testing the relationship between anger and support for violence

Hypotheses:

$H_a$ : Anger decreases support for violence.

## Example 2

Scenario:

Testing the relationship between anger and support for violence

Hypotheses:

$H_a$ : Anger decreases support for violence.  $H_0$ : Anger has no effect on support for violence.

## Example 2

Scenario:

Testing the relationship between anger and support for violence

Hypotheses:

$H_a$ : Anger decreases support for violence.  $H_0$ : Anger has no effect on support for violence.

Control Group Support: 15%. Angry Group Support: 72%. Difference: 57%

## Example 2

Scenario:

Testing the relationship between anger and support for violence

Hypotheses:

$H_a$ : Anger decreases support for violence.  $H_0$ : Anger has no effect on support for violence.

Control Group Support: 15%. Angry Group Support: 72%. Difference: 57%  
P-Value < 0.001; t-statistic: 19.23; 95% Confidence Interval: [53.7, 60.3]

## Example 2

Scenario:

Testing the relationship between anger and support for violence

Hypotheses:

$H_a$ : Anger decreases support for violence.  $H_0$ : Anger has no effect on support for violence.

Control Group Support: 15%. Angry Group Support: 72%. Difference: 57%  
P-Value < 0.001; t-statistic: 19.23; 95% Confidence Interval: [53.7, 60.3]

Conclusion: Anger increases support for violence 15% (95% CI [53.7, 60.3]). This is a statistically significant effect.

## Example 3

Scenario:

Testing the relationship between SAT scores and college graduation rates.



## Example 3

Scenario:

Testing the relationship between SAT scores and college graduation rates.

Hypotheses:

## Example 3

Scenario:

Testing the relationship between SAT scores and college graduation rates.

Hypotheses:

$H_a$ : SAT scores increase college graduation rates.

## Example 3

Scenario:

Testing the relationship between SAT scores and college graduation rates.

Hypotheses:

$H_a$ : SAT scores increase college graduation rates.  $H_0$ : SAT scores have no effect on college graduation rates.

## Example 3

Scenario:

Testing the relationship between SAT scores and college graduation rates.

Hypotheses:

$H_a$ : SAT scores increase college graduation rates.  $H_0$ : SAT scores have no effect on college graduation rates.

LOW SAT Group: 70%; High SAT Group: 73%; Difference: 3%

## Example 3

Scenario:

Testing the relationship between SAT scores and college graduation rates.

Hypotheses:

$H_a$ : SAT scores increase college graduation rates.  $H_0$ : SAT scores have no effect on college graduation rates.

LOW SAT Group: 70%; High SAT Group: 73%; Difference: 3% p-value: 0.08;  
t-statistic: 1.45; 95% Confidence Interval: [-1.2, 7.2]

## Example 3

Scenario:

Testing the relationship between SAT scores and college graduation rates.

Hypotheses:

$H_a$ : SAT scores increase college graduation rates.  $H_0$ : SAT scores have no effect on college graduation rates.

LOW SAT Group: 70%; High SAT Group: 73%; Difference: 3% p-value: 0.08;  
t-statistic: 1.45; 95% Confidence Interval: [-1.2, 7.2]

Conclusion: SAT scores are not significantly related to college graduation rates, with a difference in graduation rates of 3% (95% CI [-1.2, 7.2]). This is a statistically significant effect.