

METIS

---

# Introduction to **Hypothesis Testing**

---

# Estimation vs. Inference



# Estimation vs. Inference



- **Estimation** is the application of an algorithm

# Estimation vs. Inference



- **Estimation** is the application of an algorithm
  - E.g. Taking an average:  $\bar{X} = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i / n$

# Estimation vs. Inference



- **Estimation** is the application of an algorithm
  - E.g. Taking an average:  $\bar{X} = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i / n$
- **Inference** is putting an accuracy on our estimate

# Estimation vs. Inference



- **Estimation** is the application of an algorithm
  - E.g. Taking an average:  $\bar{X} = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i / n$
- **Inference** is putting an accuracy on our estimate
  - E.g. Standard error around average:  $\left[ \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n(n-1)} \right]^{1/2}$

# Estimation vs. Inference



- **Estimation** is the application of an algorithm
  - E.g. Taking an average:  $\bar{X} = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i / n$
- **Inference** is putting an accuracy on our estimate
  - E.g. Standard error around average:  $\left[ \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n(n-1)} \right]^{1/2}$
- (Possibly surprising) fact about inference: we use the same data we used for estimation to do inference!

# Estimation vs. Inference



- **Estimation** is the application of an algorithm
    - E.g. Taking an average:  $\bar{X} = \sum_{i=1}^N x_i / n$
  - **Inference** is putting an accuracy on our estimate
    - E.g. Standard error around average:  $\left[ \sum_{i=1}^n \frac{(x_i - \bar{x})^2}{n(n-1)} \right]^{1/2}$
- Check for understanding: Can we name some other types of estimation or inference we've seen before?



---

***Quick aside on philosophy of statistics  
(review)***

---

# Frequentist Statistics



- A **frequentist** is concerned with repeated observations in the limit

# Frequentist Statistics



- A **frequentist** is concerned with repeated observations in the limit
- Processes may have true frequencies, but we're interested in **modeling probabilities as many, many (many!) repeats of an experiment**

# Frequentist Statistics



- A **frequentist** is concerned with repeated observations in the limit
- Processes may have true frequencies, but we're interested in **modeling probabilities as many, many (many!) repeats of an experiment**
  1. Derive the probabilistic property of a procedure
  2. Apply the probability directly to our observed data



- A **Bayesian** describes parameters by probability distributions



- A **Bayesian** describes parameters by probability distributions
- Before seeing any data, a **prior distribution** (based on the experimenters' belief) is formulated



- A **Bayesian** describes parameters by probability distributions
- Before seeing any data, a **prior distribution** (based on the experimenters' belief) is formulated
- This prior distribution is then updated after seeing data (a sample from the distribution)



- A **Bayesian** describes parameters by probability distributions
- Before seeing any data, a **prior distribution** (based on the experimenters' belief) is formulated
- This prior distribution is then updated after seeing data (a sample from the distribution)
- After updating, the distribution is called the **posterior distribution**



# Frequentist vs. Bayesian



- We use much of the same math and the same formulas in both frequentist and Bayesian statistics
- What differs is the interpretation
- We will point out the difference in interpretation where appropriate

---

***Back to our regularly scheduled  
hypothesis testing lecture...***

---

# Hypothesis Testing



- A hypothesis is a statement about a population parameter

# Hypothesis Testing



- A hypothesis is a statement about a population parameter
- In **hypothesis testing**, we create two hypotheses
  - The **null hypothesis ( $H_0$ )**
  - And the **alternative hypothesis ( $H_1$  or  $H_A$ )**

# Hypothesis Testing



- A hypothesis is a statement about a population parameter
- In **hypothesis testing**, we create two hypotheses
  - The **null hypothesis ( $H_0$ )**
  - And the **alternative hypothesis ( $H_1$  or  $H_A$ )**
- We decide which one to call the null depending on how our problem is set up

# Hypothesis Testing



- A hypothesis is a statement about a population parameter
- In **hypothesis testing**, we create two hypotheses
  - The **null hypothesis ( $H_0$ )**
  - And the **alternative hypothesis ( $H_1$  or  $H_A$ )**
- Check for understanding: Can we give some examples of a null and alternative hypothesis from OLS?

# Decision Rules: Frequentist Interpretation



- A hypothesis testing procedure gives us a rule to decide:
  - For which values of our test statistic do we accept  $H_0$
  - For which values of our test statistic do we reject  $H_0$  and accept  $H_1$

# Decision Rules: Frequentist Interpretation



- A hypothesis testing procedure gives us a rule to decide:
  - For which values of our test statistic do we accept  $H_0$
  - For which values of our test statistic do we reject  $H_0$  and accept  $H_1$
- You may hear some people say that you can reject  $H_0$  but that you **never accept  $H_1$**  — for our purposes, this doesn't matter so much: we're using hypothesis testing in order to decide which of two paths to take in our project



# Decision Rules: Bayesian Interpretation



- In the **Bayesian interpretation** (example to follow), we don't get a decision boundary
- Instead, we get updated (**posterior**) probabilities

---

# Likelihood Ratio Test

---

# Coin Tossing Example



- You have two coins
  - Coin 1 has a .7 probability of coming up heads
  - Coin 2 has a .5 probability of coming up heads
- Pick one coin without looking
- Toss the coin 10 times and record # heads
- **Question:** Given the number of heads you see, which of the two coins did you toss?

# Coin Tossing Example: Likelihood Ratio



- Given what we know about coins 1 and 2, we can make a table of the probability of seeing  $x$  heads out of 10 tosses

$x$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Coin 1 $P(\text{Head}) = .5$	0.001	0.010	0.044	0.117	0.205	0.246	0.205	0.117	0.044	0.010	0.001
Coin 2 $P(\text{Head}) = .7$	0.000	0.0001	0.001	0.009	0.037	0.103	0.200	0.267	0.236	0.121	0.028

- We can now calculate a **likelihood ratio**, based on the number of heads we saw when tossing the unidentified coin

# Coin Tossing Example: Likelihood Ratio



$x$	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Coin 1 $P(\text{Head}) = .5$	0.001	0.010	0.044	0.117	0.205	0.246	0.205	0.117	0.044	0.010	0.001
Coin 2 $P(\text{Head}) = .7$	0.000	0.0001	0.001	0.009	0.037	0.103	0.200	0.267	0.236	0.121	0.028

- Let's say we saw three heads

# Coin Tossing Example: Likelihood Ratio



x	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Coin 1 P(Head) = .5	0.001	0.010	0.044	0.117	0.205	0.246	0.205	0.117	0.044	0.010	0.001
Coin 2 P(Head) = .7	0.000	0.0001	0.001	0.009	0.037	0.103	0.200	0.267	0.236	0.121	0.028

- Let's say we saw three heads
  - $P_1(3)/P_2(3) = 0.117/0.009 = 13$
  - Coin 1 was 13 times more likely to give us the output 3 heads than coin 2 was

# Coin Tossing Example: Likelihood Ratio



x	0	1	2	3	4	5	6	7	8	9	10
Coin 1 P(Head) = .5	0.001	0.010	0.044	0.117	0.205	0.246	0.205	0.117	0.044	0.010	0.001
Coin 2 P(Head) = .7	0.000	0.0001	0.001	0.009	0.037	0.103	0.200	0.267	0.236	0.121	0.028

- Let's say we saw three heads
  - $P_1(3)/P_2(3) = 0.117/0.009 = 13$
  - Coin 1 was 13 times more likely to give us the output 3 heads than coin 2 was
  - We call this the **likelihood ratio**

# Hypothesis Testing: Bayesian Interpretation



- In the Bayesian interpretation of hypothesis testing, we need to have priors for each hypothesis
  - In this case, we randomly chose the coin to flip
  - $P(H_1 = \text{we chose coin 1}) = 1/2$  and
  - $P(H_2 = \text{we chose coin 2}) = 1/2$
  - ... we have no way, before seeing the data, to determine the coin that was chosen, so just assign  $1/2$  to each



# Hypothesis Testing: Bayesian Interpretation



- Priors:  $P(H_1) = 1/2 = P(H_2) = 1/2$
- Updating priors after seeing the data (e.g.  $x = 3$  heads)

- $$P(H_1 | x) = \frac{P(x | H_1)P(H_1)}{P(x)}$$

- The priors ( $P(H_0)/P(H_1)$ ) are multiplied by the likelihood ratio, which does not depend on the priors
    - The likelihood ratio tells us how we should update the priors in reaction to seeing a given set of data!

# Hypothesis Testing: Bayesian Interpretation



- Priors:  $P(H_1) = 1/2 = P(H_2) = 1/2$
- Updating priors after seeing the data (e.g.  $x = 3$  heads)

- $$P(H_1 | x) = \frac{P(x | H_1)P(H_1)}{P(x)}$$

- We can write out the ratio: 
$$\frac{P(H_1 | x)}{P(H_2 | x)} = \frac{P(H_1)P(x | H_1)}{P(H_2)P(x | H_2)}$$

- The priors ( $P(H_0)/P(H_1)$ ) are multiplied by the likelihood ratio, which does not depend on the priors
    - The likelihood ratio tells us how we should update the priors in reaction to seeing a given set of data!

# Hypothesis Testing: Bayesian Interpretation



- Priors:  $P(H_1) = 1/2 = P(H_2) = 1/2$
- Updating priors after seeing the data (e.g.  $x = 3$  heads)
  - $$P(H_1 | x) = \frac{P(x | H_1)P(H_1)}{P(x)}$$
  - We can write out the ratio: 
$$\frac{P(H_1 | x)}{P(H_2 | x)} = \frac{P(H_1)P(x | H_1)}{P(H_2)P(x | H_2)}$$
  - The priors ( $P(H_1)/P(H_2)$ ) are multiplied by the likelihood ratio, which does not depend on the priors
  - The likelihood ratio tells us how we should update the priors in reaction to seeing a given set of data!

# Neyman-Pearson Interpretation



- Neyman-Pearson paradigm (1933) is non-Bayesian
- Gives up or down vote on  $H_0$  vs  $H_1$

# Neyman-Pearson Interpretation



- Neyman-Pearson paradigm (1933) is non-Bayesian
- Gives up or down vote on  $H_0$  vs  $H_1$
- Terminology:

		Decision	
		Accept $H_0$	Reject $H_0$
Truth	$H_0$	Correct	Type I error
	$H_1$	Type II error ( $\beta$ )	Correct

- Power of a test =  $1 - P(\text{type II error})$

# Neyman-Pearson Interpretation



- The likelihood ratio is called a **test statistic**: we use it to decide whether to accept/reject  $H_0$

# Neyman-Pearson Interpretation



- The likelihood ratio is called a **test statistic**: we use it to decide whether to accept/reject  $H_0$ 
  - The set of values of the test statistic that lead to rejection of  $H_0$  is called the **rejection region**
  - The set of values of the test statistic that lead to acceptance of  $H_0$  is called the **acceptance region**

# Neyman-Pearson Interpretation



- The likelihood ratio is called a **test statistic**: we use it to decide whether to accept/reject  $H_0$ 
  - The set of values of the test statistic that lead to rejection of  $H_0$  is called the **rejection region**
  - The set of values of the test statistic that lead to acceptance of  $H_0$  is called the **acceptance region**
- The test statistic's distribution when the null is true is called the **null distribution**



# Neyman-Pearson Interpretation of Coin Tossing Example



- In the coin tossing example:
  - $H_0$ : the coin is fair and  $P(H) = .5$
  - $H_1$ : the coin is unfair and  $P(H) > .7$
- Check for understanding: How can we test the null hypothesis? Take a minute and write it out!

# Neyman-Pearson Interpretation of Coin Tossing Example



- In the coin tossing example:
  - $H_0$ : the coin is fair and  $P(H) = .5$
  - $H_1$ : the coin is unfair and  $P(H) > .7$
- Test the null hypothesis
  - We know  $H_0$  is distributed  $\text{binom}(10, .5)$
  - Choose a p-value cutoff (more on p-values soon), say .05
  - Calculate the CDF of 3 positives from a  $\text{binom}(10, .5)$
  - = 82%
  - This is  $> 5\%$ , so we don't reject  $H_0$

---

# Significance Level & P-Values

---

# Significance Level and P-Values



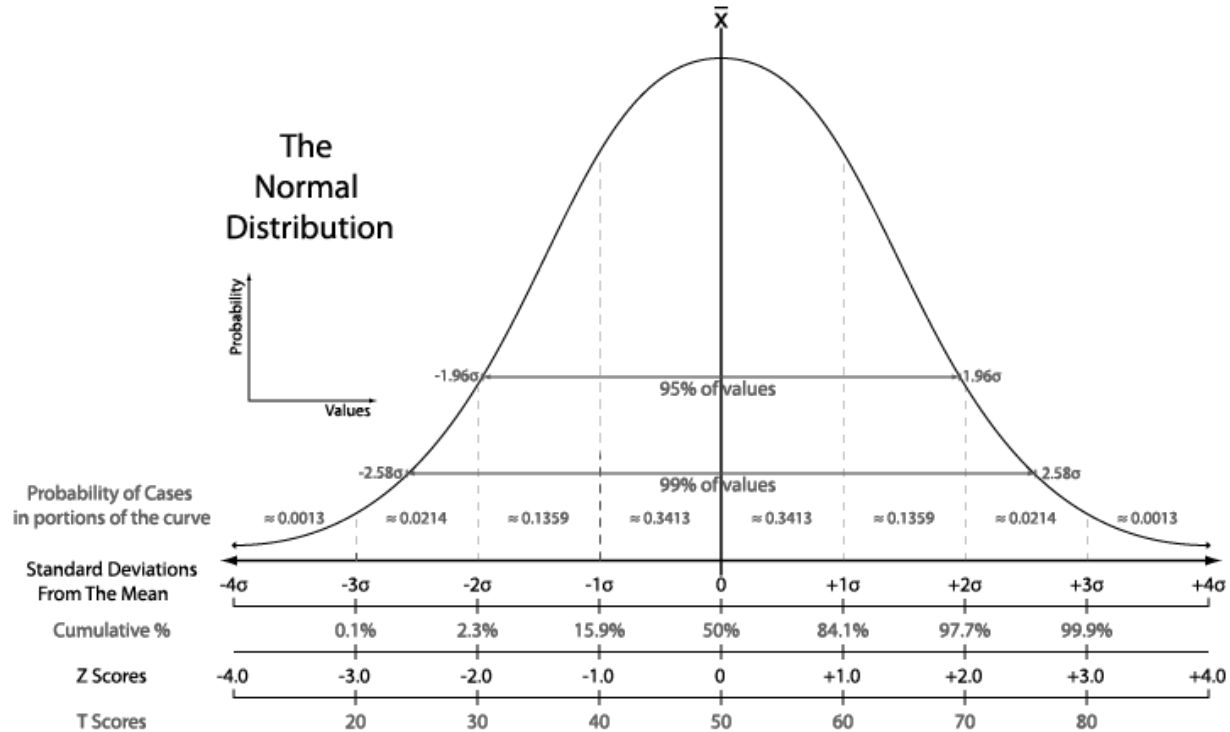
- We know the distribution of our null hypothesis
- To get a rejection region, we calculate our test statistic
- We will choose, before testing our data, the level at which we will reject our null hypothesis

# Significance Level and P-Values



- A significance level ( $\alpha$ ) is a probability threshold below which the null hypothesis will be rejected
- We must choose an  $\alpha$  **before** computing our test statistic! If we don't, we might be accused of p-hacking
- Choosing  $\alpha$  is somewhat arbitrary, but often .01 or .05
- The **p-value** is the smallest significance level at which the null hypothesis would be rejected
- Fisher interpretation of p-value: the probability under the null of a result as or more extreme than actually observed
- The **confidence interval**: the values of our statistic for which we accept the null

# Significance Level and P-Values



The slide has a solid pink background. In the center, the text 'F-Statistic' is written in a large, bold, white sans-serif font. Two thin, white horizontal lines are positioned above and below the text, extending across most of the slide width. In the background, there is a faint, light pink geometric pattern consisting of overlapping hexagons and lines, creating a 3D effect.

# F-Statistic

# F-Statistic



- $H_0$ : the data can be modeled by setting all betas to zero
- Reject the null if the p-value is small enough

OLS Regression Results

<b>Dep. Variable:</b>	Y	<b>R-squared:</b>	0.733
<b>Model:</b>	OLS	<b>Adj. R-squared:</b>	0.663
<b>Method:</b>	Least Squares	<b>F-statistic:</b>	10.50
<b>Date:</b>	Mon, 08 Oct 2018	<b>Prob (F-statistic):</b>	1.24e-05
<b>Time:</b>	20:16:45	<b>Log-Likelihood:</b>	-97.250
<b>No. Observations:</b>	30	<b>AIC:</b>	208.5
<b>Df Residuals:</b>	23	<b>BIC:</b>	218.3
<b>Df Model:</b>	6		
<b>Covariance Type:</b>	nonrobust		



---

# QUESTIONS?

---