

Recall general framework of a test:

1. State null and alternative hypothesis
"empty"
 H_0 : "no effect" vs. H_a : "some nonzero effect"
2. Calculate test statistic
(standardized difference)
3. Obtain p-value from Sampling distribution
 (If had lots of samples, and H_0 were true, what is the [theoretical] distribution of the test statistic?)
(Not: distribution of this sample of data)
4. Make conclusion *(in context)*

Handout #4: A vs. B:

subscript: group #, rep. #

1. $H_0: \mu_A = \mu_B$ vs. $H_a: \mu_A \neq \mu_B$

independent and identically distributed
symbolic rep. of data
 Y_{A1}, \dots, Y_{An_A} "iid" $N(\mu_A, \sigma_A^2)$, Y_{B1}, \dots, Y_{Bn_B} iid $N(\mu_B, \sigma_B^2)$
 $n_A = \text{total sample size in group A}$
 ↑ ↑
 mean variance

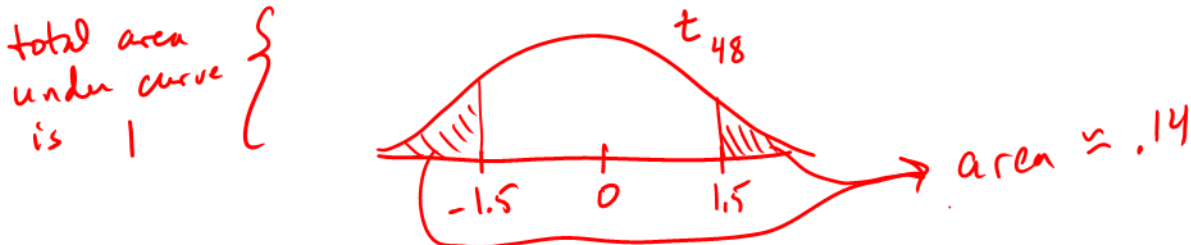
↳ true pop. mean # lice same for both chemicals

2. With $s_p^2 =$ pooled variance estimate, *(assume $\sigma_A^2 = \sigma_B^2$)*
 $s_A^2 = \hat{\sigma}_A^2$
like a weighted ave. of s_A^2 & s_B^2
 $t = \frac{\bar{Y}_B - \bar{Y}_A}{s_p \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_A} + \frac{1}{n_B}}}$
-1.50 here
 } diff. in means
 } standardizing value

3. Under H_0 (i.e., if H_0 is true), and model assumptions are met),

$$t \sim t_{n_A+n_B-2}$$

so repeating this experiment many times would produce t statistics with this distribution:



P-value = probability of observing a result [test statistic] at least as extreme as this, just by chance when H_0 is true.

4. Fail to reject H_0 because: $.14 > .05$
 Conclude:

No signif. evidence of difference between chemicals A & B

H_a tells direction

α -level

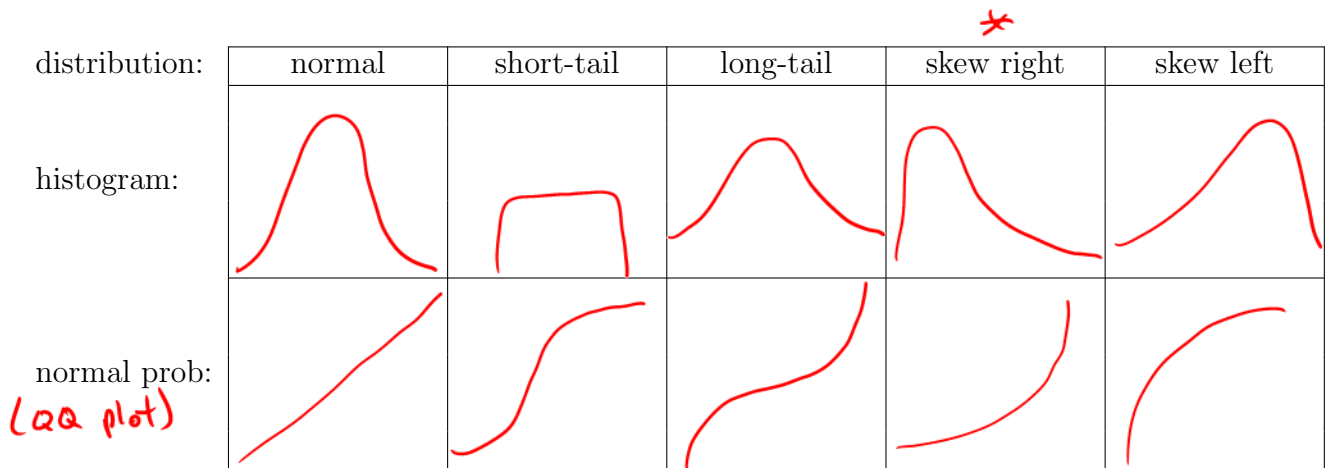
Important aside:

- “p-values, confidence intervals, and other statistical measures are all uncertain. Treating them otherwise is immodest overconfidence.”¹
- ATOM: Accept uncertainty. Be thoughtful, open, and modest.¹
- We will use small p-values as suggestive of further interest, not as definitive proof

But wait – the t distribution is only appropriate when: *model assumptions are met (need to check distribution of #lice)*

Graphical checks: *(for normality; more later)*

- boxplot – kind of clunky, but useful for summarizing symmetry and “outliers” (don’t over-interpret)
- histogram – hard to gauge deviations from normal curve
- normal probability plot – compare observed values (vertical axis) to expected [normal] values (horizontal axis); examples:



What to do if assumptions are violated?

- We’ll come back to this more in Ch. 6, but in general:

transform response variable (log, or $\sqrt{\quad}$, or square, or ...) -or- *assume a different distribution (later in semester)*
 (drop “outliers” only as a last resort)

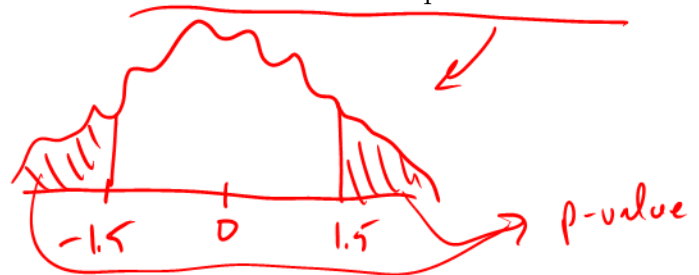
- Can also consider a non-parametric test

¹Wasserstein et al. 2019. Moving to a World Beyond “ $p < 0.05$ ”

no assumption about distribution

Example: if t distribution with $n_A + n_B - 2$ d.f. isn't appropriate distribution, what is?

- One way: Generate sampling distribution by permutations.
 - H_0 says treatment labels don't matter, so randomly rearrange them and re-calculate t ; so this many [all possible] times and use the distribution of all possible t values



- Example of "resampling" (book refers to as randomization testing; related to bootstrap sampling)

↳ generate sampling dist'n w/ repeat samples of data

- Another way: Rather than using actual data values, look at permutation of ranks

(Wilcoxon Rank-Sum or Mann-Whitney or Kruskal-Wallis)

→ see PROC NPAR1WAY

A numerical test for normality? (NOTE: try "energy" test, too)

- Several exist, but easy to over-interpret. If distribution is roughly bell-shaped, any test requiring normality usually okay
- H_0 : data normal vs. H_a : data not normal

– For $10 < n < 2000$: Shapiro-Wilks Test

– For $n > 2000$: Kolmogorov-Smirnov Test

But beware, because tests are hyper-sensitive (end of $H_0 \neq \emptyset$)
– even slight departures from normality will be exaggerated

- Best to rely on: Graphical checks (esp. QQ or normal prob. plot)