Gov 50: 22. More hypothesis testing

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Roadmap

- 1. Two-sample tests
- 2. Two-sample permutation tests with infer
- 3. Issues with hypothesis testing

1/ Two-sample tests

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	- 5. Use p-value to decide whether to reject the null hypothesis or not

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- Randomized implies samples are **independent**

Dear Registered Voter:

WHAT IF YOUR NEIGHBORS KNEW WHETHER YOU VOTED?

Why do so many people fail to vote? We've been talking about the problem for years, but it only seems to get worse. This year, we're taking a new approach. We're sending this mailing to you and your neighbors to publicize who does and does not vote

The chart shows the names of some of your neighbors, showing which have voted in the past. After the August 8 election, we intend to mail an updated chart. You and your neighbors will all know who voted and who did not.

DO YOUR CIVIC DUTY-VOTE!

Social pressure data

library(infer) data(social, package = "qss") social <- as_tibble(social) social

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	- Null: $H_0: \mu_T \mu_C = 0$
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	- Two-sided alternative: H_1 : $\mu_T \mu_C \neq 0$
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	- Two-sided alternative: H_1 : $\mu_T \mu_C \neq 0$
- In words: are the differences in sample means just due to chance?

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Permutation test: generate the null distribution by permuting the group labels and see the resulting distribution of differences in proportions

Permuting the labels

social <- social |> filter(messages %in% c("Neighbors", "Control"))

social |>

 $mutate(messages permute = sample(messages))$ |> select(primary2006, messages, messages_permute)

A tibble: 229,444 x 3 ## primary2006 messages messages permute ## <int> <chr> <chr> ## 1 0 Control Control ## 2 1 Control Control ## 3 1 Control Neighbors ## 4 0 Control Control ## 5 0 Control Control ## 6 1 Control Neighbors ## 7 0 Control Control ## 8 1 Control Control ## 9 1 Control Control ## 10 1 Control Control ## # i 229,434 more rows

2/ Two-sample permutation tests with infer

Calculating the difference in proportion

infer functions with binary outcomes work best with factor variables:

```
social <- social |>
 mutate(turnout = if_else(primary2006 == 1, "Voted", "Didn't Vote"))
est ate \leftarrow social |>specify(turnout ~ messages, success = "Voted") >
 calculate(stat = \sqrt{n}diff in props", order = c("Neichbors", "Control"))est_ate
```

```
## Response: turnout (factor)
## Explanatory: messages (factor)
## # A tibble: 1 x 1
## stat
## <dbl>
## 1 0.0813
```
Specifying the relationship of interest

infer functions with binary outcomes work best with factor variables:

social |> $specify(turnout ~<$ messages, success = "Voted")

Setting the hypotheses

The null for these two-sample tests is called "independence" for the infer package because the assumption is that the two variables are statistically independent.

```
social |>
 specify(turnout ~ messages, success = "Voted") >
 hypothesize(null = "independence")
```

```
## Response: turnout (factor)
## Explanatory: messages (factor)
## Null Hypothesis: independence
## # A tibble: 229,444 x 2
## turnout messages
## <fct> <fct>
## 1 Didn't Vote Control
## 2 Voted Control
## 3 Voted Control
## 4 Didn't Vote Control
## 5 Didn't Vote Control
## 6 Voted Control
## 7 Didn't Vote Control
## 8 Voted Control
```
Generating the permutations

We can tell infer to do our permutation test by using the argument type $=$ "permute" to generate():

```
social |>
  specify(turnout ~ messages, success = "Voted") >
 hypothesize(null = "independence") |>
 generate(reps = 1000, type = "permute")
```

```
## Response: turnout (factor)
## Explanatory: messages (factor)
## Null Hypothesis: independence
## # A tibble: 229,444,000 x 3
## # Groups: replicate [1,000]
## turnout messages replicate
## <fct> <fct> <int>
## 1 Voted Control 1
## 2 Didn't Vote Control 1
## 3 Voted Control 1
## 4 Didn't Vote Control 1
## 5 Didn't Vote Control 1
## 6 Voted Control 1
## 7 Voted Control 1
```
Calculating the diff in proportions in each sample

```
null_dist <- social |>
  specify(turnout ~ messages, success = "Voted") >
 hypothesize(null = "independence") |>generate(reps = 1000, type = "permute") |>
 calculate(stat = "diff in props", order = c("Neighbors", "Control"))
```
null_dist

Visualizing

null_dist |> visualize()


```
ate_pval <- null_dist |>
  get p value(obs stat = est ate, direction = "both")
ate_pval
```

```
## # A tibble: 1 x 1
## p_value
## <dbl>
## 1 0
```
Visualizing p-values

null dist $|>$ visualize() + shade_p_value(obs_stat = est_ate, direction = "both")

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	- \rightsquigarrow p-value for $H_0: \mu_T \mu_C = 0$ less than 0.05.
- Confidence intervals are all of the null hypotheses we **can't reject** with a test.

```
social |>
 specify(turnout ~ messages, success = "Voted") >
 generate(reps = 1000, type = "bootstrap") |>
 calculate(stat = "diff in props",
           order = c("Neighbors", "Control")) |>
 get_ci(level = 0.95)
```

```
## # A tibble: 1 x 2
## lower_ci upper_ci
## <dbl> <dbl>
## 1 0.0760 0.0867
```
3/ Issues with hypothesis testing

Significant vs not significant

The difference between statistically significant and not statistically significant is itself not statistically significant:

BEWARE FALSE CONCLUSIONS

Studies currently dubbed 'statistically significant' and 'statistically non-significant' need not be contradictory, and such designations might cause genuine effects to be dismissed.

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- 1. **Statistical significance:** we can reject the null of no effect.
- 2. **Causal significance**: we can interpret our estimated difference in means as a causal effect.
- 3. **Practical significance**: the estimated effect is meaningfully large.

p-hacking

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