Gov 50: 22. More hypothesis testing

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

/ Two-sample tests

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 - 4. Use this distribution to calculate the **p-value**.
 - 5. Use p-value to decide whether to reject the null hypothesis or not

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- Outcome: whether household members voted or not.
- We'll focus on Neighbors vs Control
- 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!

MAPLE DR	Aug 04	Nov 04	Aug 06
9995 JOSEPH JAMES SMITH	Voted	Voted	
9995 JENNIFER KAY SMITH		Voted	
9997 RICHARD B JACKSON		Voted	
9999 KATHY MARIE JACKSON		Voted	

Social pressure data

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

##	# A tibbl	le: 305,866 >	х б			
##	sex	yearofbirth	primary2004	messages	primary2006	hhsize
##	<chr></chr>	<int></int>	<int></int>	<chr></chr>	<int></int>	<int></int>
##	1 male	1941	Θ	Civic D~	Θ	2
##	2 fema~	1947	Θ	Civic D~	Θ	2
##	3 male	1951	Θ	Hawthor~	1	3
##	4 fema~	1950	Θ	Hawthor~	1	3
##	5 fema~	1982	Θ	Hawthor~	1	3
##	6 male	1981	Θ	Control	Θ	3
##	7 fema~	1959	Θ	Control	1	3
##	8 male	1956	Θ	Control	1	3
##	9 fema~	1968	Θ	Control	Θ	2
##	10 male	1967	Θ	Control	Θ	2
##	# i 305,8	356 more rows	S			

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 - Null: $H_0: \mu_T \mu_C = 0$
 - 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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If the voting distribution is the same in the treatment and control groups, we could randomly swap who is labelled as treated and who is labelled as control and it shouldn't matter.

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If the voting distribution is the same in the treatment and control groups, we could randomly swap who is labelled as treated and who is labelled as control and it shouldn't matter.

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: 22	9,444 x 3	
##	F	orimary2006	messages	messages_permute
##		<int></int>	<chr></chr>	<chr></chr>
##	1	Θ	Control	Control
##	2	1	Control	Control
##	3	1	Control	Neighbors
##	4	Θ	Control	Control
##	5	Θ	Control	Control
##	6	1	Control	Neighbors
##	7	Θ	Control	Control
##	8	1	Control	Control
##	9	1	Control	Control
##	10	1	Control	Control
##	# i	229,434 mo	re 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 <- social |>
  specify(turnout ~ messages, success = "Voted") |>
  calculate(stat = "diff in props", order = c("Neighbors", "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")
```

```
## Response: turnout (factor)
  Explanatory: messages (factor)
##
## # 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
##
   9 Voted Control
## 10 Voted Control
  # i 229,434 more rows
##
```

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
##
   3 Voted Control
   4 Didn't Vote Control
##
##
   5 Didn't Vote Control
##
   6 Voted Control
##
   7 Voted Control
```

Calculating the diff in proportions in each sample

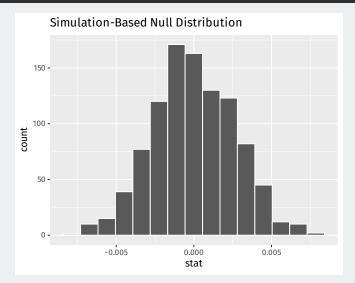
```
null_dist <- social |>
  specify(turnout ~ messages, success = "Voted") |>
  hypothesize(null = "independence") |>
  generate(reps = 1000, type = "permute") |>
  calculate(stat = "diff in props", order = c("Neighbors", "Control"))
```

null_dist

##	Response: tu	rnout (factor)
##	Explanatory:	messages (factor)
##	Null Hypothes	sis: independence
##	# A tibble: 1	L,000 x 2
##	replicate	stat
##	<int></int>	<dbl></dbl>
##	1 1	0.00217
##	2 2	-0.00606
##	3 3	0.00286
##	4 4	0.00204
##	5 5	-0.000943
##	6 6	-0.00298
##	7 7	0.00311
##	8 8	-0.000315
##	9 9	-0.00126
##	10 10	-0.000912
##	# i 990 more	rows

Visualizing

null_dist |>
 visualize()

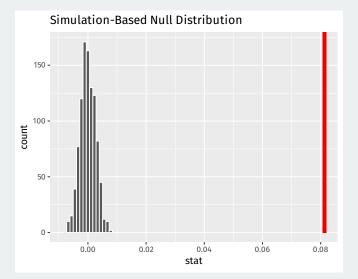


```
ate_pval <- null_dist |>
    get_p_value(obs_stat = est_ate, direction = "both")
ate_pval
```

```
## # 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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- Any value outside of a $100 \times (1 \alpha)$ % confidence interval would have a p-value less than α if we tested it as the null hypothesis.
 - 95% CI for social pressure experiment: [0.016, 0.124]
 - \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.

```
## # A tibble: 1 x 2
## lower_ci upper_ci
## <dbl> <dbl>
## 1 0.0760 0.0867
```

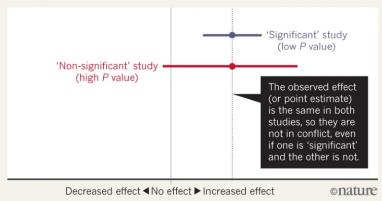
3/ Issues with hypothesis testing

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.



There are different types of significance that don't all have to be true together:

1. Statistical significance: we can reject the null of no effect.

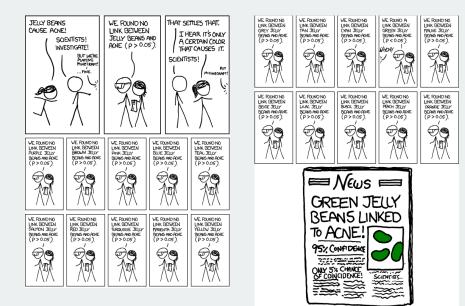
There are different types of significance that don't all have to be true together:

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- 1. **Statistical significance:** we can reject the null of no effect.
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- 3. **Practical significance**: the estimated effect is meaningfully large.

p-hacking



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