## CS1951A: Data Science

## Lecture 8: Introduction to Hypothesis Testing

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## Outline

- Approaches to data analysis: heuristic vs probabilistic vs statistical hypothesis testing
- What is a hypothesis
- Probability review
- A simple example of statistical testing


## The Data Analysis Method



- "explore", "analyze trends", "look for patterns", "visualize"
- Come up with possible explanations of the observed phenomena
- Formulate hypotheses on the "world" from which the data is observed
- Test your hypotheses using new data from the same source
- Never use the same data to formulate hypotheses and to test them
- Risk of overfitting and false discoveries


## Approaches to data analysis: Heuristic

- Heuristic analysis:
- We make observations on the available data
- No (or very weak) guarantee on the generalizability of the results
- Still can be very useful!
- Some techniques within Machine Learning and Database analysis, and BigData analytics are heuristic in nature


## Approaches to data analysis: Probabilistic method 1/2

- Probabilistic method:
- We assume the existence of an underlying stochastic phenomenon
- The phenomenon generates the observed data according to some unknown probability distribution (i.e., the ground truth)
- We assume the observed data to be obtained by sampling such distribution (often assuming independently )
- We analyze the data to infer conclusions that are valid for the entire underlying model
- I.e., that generalize to the unknown distribution


## Approaches to data analysis: Probabilistic method 2/2

- Probabilistic method:
- We want guarantees on the accuracy of our insights!
- if we are estimating a parameter we want to be able to claim that our estimate close to the true value (e.g., within $\epsilon<5 \%$ ) with high probability (e.g., at least 99\%)
- Statistical machine learning, probabilistic data analysis, etc.,

Approaches to data analysis: Hypothesis testing 1/3

- We formulate a priori "null" hypothesis $\left(\mathrm{H}_{0}\right)$ on the "world" or some phenomena
- You can think of this as some widely held belief
- We then come up with a new "alternative hypothesis" $\left(\mathrm{H}_{1}\right.$ or $\left.\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{a}}\right)$ which contradicts the null.
- This is the hypothesis we are interested in testing (our new belief)
- It is not always complementary to the null
- We obtain some data to test our hypothesis


## Approaches to data analysis: Hypothesis testing 2/3

- We do not directly test the alternative $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{a}}$
- Rather we test the null $\mathrm{H}_{0}$
- We will consider how unlikely it is that a phenomenon that follows the null hypothesis has generated data which behaves as the observed one or more extreme
- Imagine this as saying:
- Assuming that the null is correct and the phenomenon has given properties
- How (un)likely am I to observe the given data!
- If the data appears extremely unlikely under the null hypothesis we reject the null hypothesis
- We are saying the null hypothesis does not seem to correctly describe the phenomenon
- CAREFUL: we are NOT accepting the alternative $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{a}}$
- Rather we are saying $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{a}}$ has a possibility of being correct
- Otherwise, we fail to reject the null hypothesis
- CAREFUL: we are NOT accepting $\mathrm{H}_{0}$


## Approaches to data analysis: Hypothesis testing 3/3

- We want guarantees on the accuracy of our decisions:
- We would like to say that if we reject/fail to reject a null we are correct in doing so with some probability (confidence)
- We will get asymptotic guarantees on the accuracy of our rejections
- Very different from the probabilistic approach where we obtain finite sample guarantees
- Many important sub branches: classical "frequentist" statistical tests, Bayesian approach.


## Statistics vs Probabilistic Analysis

- Both are useful and important
- There is a large intersection between the two
- Historical differences:
- Back in the day smaller data were available
- Focus on statistical hypothesis testing
- In the era of BigData other methods are viable
- Depending on the available data one method may be more desirable
- How much data is available?
- How much prior information do I have about the model?
- What kind of guarantees on the results do I want?
- Statically testing yields asymptotic guarantees
- Probabilistic analysis yields (stronger) finite sample guarantees


## What is an hypothesis?

- A hypothesis is a statement about properties of an observed phenomenon
- It should be falsifiable
- It should be somewhat contested
- Otherwise not very interesting!
- Avoid tautologies


## Quiz time!

"Look for differences in political affiliations between universities"

## Is this a valid hypothesis?

a) Yes
b) No

## Quiz time!

"Wearing a mask reduces the risk of contracting COVID"

Is this a valid hypothesis?
a) Yes
b) No

## Quiz time!

"Wearing a mask reduces the risk of contracting COVID with respect to using no PID"

Is this a valid hypothesis?
a) Yes
b) No

## What about these?

- h1: "This coin is biased towards head"
- h2: "People born in Europe are less likely to have chronic health conditions compared to people in East Asia"
- h3: "People with a college degree are more likely to enter the $1 \%$ of earners"
- h4: "Graduate students are disproportionally likely to being depressed"


## The hypothesis testing method

1. Start from some observation on the data
2. Formulate a "research" (alternative) hypothesis $\mathrm{H}_{\mathrm{a}}$ according to the prescribed rules
3. Test it against a "default" null-hypothesis $\mathrm{H}_{0}$
4. Obtain fresh data to test the hypothesis
5. Using an opportunely chosen statistical test, determine if the data supports the null hypothesis or not

## Probability spaces $<\Omega, F, P$

A Probability Space has three components:

- A Sample Space $\Omega$, which is the set of all possible outcomes of the random process being observed
- E.g., Consider tossing a die we would have $\Omega=\{1,2,3,4,5,6\}$
- E.g., Consider tossing two dice: what is $\Omega$ ?
- A family of sets F representing the the allowable events, where each set in $F$ is a subset of $\Omega$
- Elements of F also referred as "Events"
- $F=2^{\Omega}$
- Elements of $\Omega$ referred as "Elementary events" or "Samples"
- E.g., in our die example

$$
F=\{\emptyset,\{1\},\{2\},\{3\},\{4\},\{5\},\{6\},\{1,2\}, \ldots\{1,2,3,4,5,6,\}\}
$$

## Probability spaces $<\Omega, F, \operatorname{Pr}>$

- A probability function Pr: $F \rightarrow[0,1]$ which satisfies the properties:
- For any $E \in F, O \leq \operatorname{Pr}(E) \leq 1$
$-\operatorname{Pr}(\Omega)=1$
- For any finite or countably infinite sequence of pairwise disjoint events $E_{1}, E_{2}, E_{3}, \ldots$

$$
\operatorname{Pr}\left(\cup E_{i}\right)=\Sigma \operatorname{Pr}\left(E_{i}\right)
$$

- E.g., for our die example
$\operatorname{Pr}(\{1\})=\operatorname{Pr}(\{2\})=\operatorname{Pr}(\{3\})=\operatorname{Pr}(\{4\})=\operatorname{Pr}(\{5\})=\operatorname{Pr}(\{6\})=1 / 6$ $\operatorname{Pr}(\{1,2,3,4,5,6\})=1$
- For any two events $E_{1}, E_{2} \in \mathrm{~F}, \operatorname{Pr}\left(\mathrm{E}_{1} \cup E_{2}\right)=\operatorname{Pr}\left(\mathrm{E}_{1}\right)+$ $\operatorname{Pr}\left(\mathrm{E}_{2}\right)-\operatorname{Pr}\left(\mathrm{E}_{1} \cap E_{2}\right)$


## Random Variables

- Sample space $\Omega$ : set of values which represent outcomes of an experiment
- A random variable $X$ on a sample space $\Omega$ is a real-valued function on $\Omega$, $\mathrm{X}: \Omega \rightarrow R$
- A discrete random variable, is a random variable that can only assume a finite (countable) number of values.
- The set of values it can assume is called the Range of the random variable
- Given a discrete random variable $X$ and a real value $a$ : the event " $X=a$ " represents the subset of $\Omega$ given by $\{s \in \Omega: X(s)=a\}$

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(X=a)=\Sigma_{s \in \Omega: X(s)=a} \operatorname{Pr}(s)
$$

This is called the probability mass function of $X$ ( pmf )

- The cumulative distribution function (cdf) gives the probability of the random variable $X$ assuming values up to $a$

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(X \leq a)=\Sigma_{a_{i} \leq a} \operatorname{Pr}\left(X=a_{i}\right)
$$

## Example: fair die

Pmf for $X=$ outcome of tosses of a fair die


Cdf outcome of toss of a fair die


## Quiz time!

Let $X$ be a random variable with the below cdf

| $X$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\operatorname{Pr}(X \leq a)$ | 0.5 | 0.75 | 0.9 | 1 |

What is the value of $\operatorname{Pr}(X \leq 3)$ ?
a. 0.5
b. 0.15
c. 0.9
d. 1
e. 0

## Quiz time!

Let $X$ be a random variable with the below cdf

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| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
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What is the value of $\operatorname{Pr}(\mathrm{X}=3)$ ?
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## Quiz time!

Let $X$ be a random variable with the below cdf

| $X$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\operatorname{Pr}(X \leq a)$ | 0.5 | 0.75 | 0.9 | 1 |

What is the value of $\operatorname{Pr}(\mathrm{X}=2.5)$ ?
a. 0.5
b. 0.15
c. 0.9
d. 1
e. 0

## Independence

Two random variables $X$ and $Y$ are independent if and only if

$$
\operatorname{Pr}((X=x) \cap(Y=y))=\operatorname{Pr}(X=x) \operatorname{Pr}(Y=y)
$$

for all values $x$ and $y$. The definition extends to multiple random variables.

## Identically Distributed RVs

Two random variables $X$ and $Y$ are identically distributed if and only if for all values $x$ in the range of $X$ and $Y$ :

$$
\operatorname{Pr}(X=x)=\operatorname{Pr}(Y=x)
$$

- Sometimes we will say that two or more variables $X_{1}, X_{2}, \ldots X_{i}$ are iid as a short way to say that the variables are all
- identically distributed and
- pairwise independent


## Expectation

- The expectation of a discrete random variable $X$, denoted as $E[X]$, is defined as

$$
E[X]=\sum i \operatorname{Pr}(X=i)
$$

where the summation is over the values $i$ in the range of $X$.
$-E[X]$ is a weighted sum over all possible values weighted according to their probability

- A continues random variable, is a random variable that can only assume an uncountable number of values (e.g., $R$ )
- The expectation of a continuous random variable $X$, denoted as $E[X]$ is given by

$$
E[X]=\int i P(X=i)
$$

where the integral is over the values $i$ in the range of $X$.

## Expectation

- The expectation is finite if it converges to a finite value, otherwise it is unbounded
- For any pair of random variables $X_{1}, X_{2}$ and constants $a, b$ we have, by linearity of expectation

$$
E\left[a X_{1}+b X_{2}\right]=a E\left[X_{1}\right]+b E\left[X_{2}\right]
$$

## Expected Value

$$
E(X)=\sum_{i} x_{i} \operatorname{Pr}\left(x_{i}\right)
$$

| $X$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| pdf | 0.5 | 0.25 | 0.15 | 0.1 |

$E[X]=$ ?

## Expectation: example

Would you buy a bitcoin at $\$ 30 \mathrm{k}$ knowing that it has a $10 \%$ chance to go to $\$ 250 \mathrm{k}$ in a year, and $90 \%$ chance of going to $\$ 0$ in one year?

- Let us compute the expected value!
- $X=$ gain with respect to the initial investment
- pmf: $\operatorname{Pr}(X=220)=0.1, \operatorname{Pr}(X=-30)=0.9$
- $E[X]=-5 k$
- We expect to be losing money $*$


## Expectation: example

- What should be different so that this in investment is worth considering?
- Expectation should be at least 0 (i.e., even odds), the higher the better
- Higher chance of success/lower chance of loss
- Higher return on success/lower loss of failure


## Variance

- The variance of a random variable $X$, denoted as $\operatorname{Var}[X]$ is defined as

$$
\operatorname{Var}[X]=E\left[X^{2}\right]-E[X]^{2}
$$

- The standard deviation of $X$, is given by

$$
\sigma[X]=\sqrt{\operatorname{Var}}[X]
$$

- They characterize how much deviation from the expectation we are likely to observe
- Very important for hypothesis testing!


## Variance: Example

$$
\operatorname{Var}[X]=E\left[X^{2}\right]-E[X]^{2}
$$

| $X$ | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| pmf | 0.5 | 0.25 | 0.15 | 0.1 |

- Recall: $E[X]=1.85$
$-E[X]^{2}=3.4225$
- $E\left[X^{2}\right]=1 \times 0.5+4 \times 0.25+9 \times 0.15+16 \times 0.1=4.45$
- $\operatorname{Var}[x]=4.45-3.4225=1.0275$


## Variance: example

Would you buy a bitcoin at $\$ 30 \mathrm{k}$ knowing that it has a $10 \%$ chance to go to $\$ 250$ k in a year, and $90 \%$ chance of going to $\$ 0$ in an year?

- $E[X]=-5 k$
- What is the variance?
- $\operatorname{Var}[X]=495 \times 10^{8}-25 \times 10^{6}$
- Standard deviation?
- $\sigma[X] \approx 225 k$
- Both values are very high with respect to the expectation!
- We are likely to observe large deviations from the expected value!
- This is general undesirable when considering investments
- Higher variance $\rightarrow$ Less predictability © $^{\text {- }}$


## Binary random variables

A binary random variable can only assume two values

- If those values are 0 and 1 then it is called a Bernoulli
random variable
- Used to represent many common phenomena
- Coin tosses
- Success/failure
- On/off
- The expectation of a binary RV is given by

$$
E[X]=x_{1} \operatorname{Pr}\left(X=x_{1}\right)+x_{2} \operatorname{Pr}\left(X=x_{2}\right)
$$

- Sometimes we say that a binary RV is fair or unbiased if the two outcomes have the same probability


## Binomial distribution

Suppose we are flipping $n$ times a coin and we want to characterize the probability distribution of the number of heads

- All coin tosses are independent of each other and identically distributed
- We can model each coin toss as a Bernoulli RV $X_{i}$ with probability of head $=p$
- We do not care about the order of heads and tails but only for the total final count!
- Let Y be the RV which denotes the number of heads

$$
Y=\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_{i}
$$

## Binomial distribution

- $\quad Y$ is called a Binomial random variable with parameters ( $n, p$ )
- n : number of attempts
- p: probability of success in each attempt
- The pmf of $Y$ is

$$
\begin{gathered}
P(Y=i)=\binom{n}{i} p^{i}(1-p)^{n-i} \\
P(Y=i)=\frac{n!}{i!(n-1)!} p^{i}(1-p)^{n-i}
\end{gathered}
$$

- The Binomial coefficient $\binom{n}{i}$ counts all the possible outcome sequences with $i$ successes and $n-i$ failures


## Expectation of known distributions

- Let X be a Bernoulli random variable with parameter p

$$
E[X]=\text { ? }
$$

- Let $Y$ be a Binomial random variable with parameters $n, p$

$$
E[Y]=\text { ? }
$$

## Variance of known distributions

- Let X be a Bernoulli random variable with parameter $p$

$$
\operatorname{Var}[X]=?
$$

- Let $Y$ be a Binomial random variable with parameters $n, p$

$$
\operatorname{Var}[Y]=?
$$

## The bigger picture

- Start with real world/phenomenon observations
- Make assumptions about the underlying model
- Se the null hypothesis
- Fit the parameters of the model based on data
- Chose parameters of the model based on theories, do analysis to see if its a good fit (hypothesis testing!!)
- Set parameters of the model based on data, try to make forecast for unseen/future data (prediction!!)


## Hidden patterns in driving license tests

Are the correct answers to multiple choices quiz truly random?

- Null hypothesis h: "I think that for each question the answer "b" with 80\% probability"
- To test our hypothesis we collect some data:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \mathrm{abcb} \\
& \mathrm{abcc} \\
& \mathrm{dcbc}
\end{aligned}
$$

- What is the likelihood of observing such data assuming that the hypothesis is correct?


## Hidden patterns in driving license tests

What is the likelihood of observing such data assuming that the hypothesis is correct?

$$
\begin{aligned}
& a b c b \\
& a b c c \\
& d c b c
\end{aligned}
$$

- We define the probability space for each question under the current hypothesis
- $\Omega=\{b$, not $b\}$
- $\operatorname{Pr}(b)=0.8, \operatorname{Pr}($ not $b)=0.2$
- We are also implicitly assuming that the questions are independent and identically distributed

The probability of observing such data under the current assumption is $=0.8^{4} \times 0.2^{8}=0.00000105$

- This seems very low....so we can for sure say that the hypothesis is not correct....right???
- NOT QUITE SO FAST :


## Hidden patterns in driving license tests

## What if we consider a different set of data?

- We define the probability space for


## abbb <br> bbbc <br> bbbb

 each question under the current hypotheis- $\Omega=\{b, \operatorname{not} B\}$
- $\operatorname{Pr}(b)=0.8, \operatorname{Pr}($ not $B)=0.2$
- We are also implicitly assuming that the questions are independent and uniformly distributed

The probability of observing such data under the current assumption is then $=0.8^{10} \times 0.2^{2}=0.004$

- But this still seems low even though the data seems to strongly support the hypothesis
- Are we doing something wrong???


## A different question

The error is in the question that we ask and the ways we interpret its result

- The absolute probability of an event is not by itself decisive
- Rather than just asking how likely it is to observe the data, we should ask how likely it is to observe something that looks much different than this!


## Revisiting the question

Rather than considering a specific order of answers, we focus on the aggregate distribution of the answers


The random phenomenon we care about is the number of questions with answer $b$

$$
X=\text { questions with answer } B
$$

- $X$ is a random variable
- What is its distribution?

According to our hypothesis, $X$ is the sum of random variables, each corresponding to each question, whose answer is $b$ with probability 0.8

- X is Binomial random variable with parameters $12,0.8$


## Binomial distribution of the outcomes

h: "I think that for each question the answer "b" with 80\% probability"


## Binomial distribution of the outcomes

h : "I think that for each question the answer " $b$ " with 80\% probability"

> cdf


Is the fact that we observed 4 b very unlikely under the current assumption on the model?

## Does the data support my hypothesis?


$P(X \leq 4)<0.0006!$

- The probability of the observed data under the current model is very low
- We would be incline to reject the hypothesis as unlikely to be correct!


## Does the data support my hypothesis?



- The probability of observing no more than 10
b's is rather high
- The data appears to support the hypothesis
- We do not have evidence to reject it
- CAREFUL: we are not saying that the null hypothesis is very likely correct


## To be continued

- Over the next few lectures, we will introduce statistical tests which give us a way to measure how much the data "supports our hypothesis"
- We will introduce the idea of $p$-value which gives us a criteria for deciding which hypotheses can be rejected with some guarantee


## Conclusion

$h$ : "I think that for each question the answer " $b$ " with 80\% probability"

At the end of the day, was this hypothesis correct?
a) yes
b) no

