#### **P-Values**



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#### P-Value

- Assuming the Null Hypothesis is true, the probability of observing a value that is as extreme or more extreme than what we observe
- Informally: if nothing is actually going on, how weird would it be to observe the data we do?

# Coin flip example

- A fair coin has a probability of 0.5 of coming up heads
- We observe that the coin came up heads 60 times out of 100
- Assuming the coin is actually fair, the probability of observing a value that's as extreme or more extreme than 60 is

 $P(x \ge 60 \text{ or } x \le 40), x \sim Binomial(100, 0.5)$ 

 $x \sim Binomial(100, 0.5)$  means that x is distributed according to a Binomial distribution, with a probability of 1 equal to 0.5

### Coin flip example

 $P(x \ge 60 \text{ or } x \le 40) = P(x \ge 60) + P(x \le 40)$ 

• Compute this using

pbinom(q = 40, size = 100, prob = 0.5) + (1 - pbinom(q = 59, size = 100, prob = 0.5) = 0.057

- We'd see data that's as weird or weirder than what we observe more than 1 time out of 20
  - Some, but not overwhelming evidence that the coin is not fair

## Coin flip – fake data approach

- Idea: generate fake datasets where the null hypothesis is true, and see how often we observe data that's as weird or weirder than what we actually observe
- Generate 10,000 datasets where we flipped a coin 100 times

```
fake.data <- rbinom(10000, size = 100, prob = 0.5)
> fake.data
55 51 42 44 44 54 49 ....
> mean((fake.data <= 40) | (fake.data >= 60))
```

0.05833

# Darwin's Finches example

- Beak size information for 89 finches in each of 1977 and 1979
- Want to know whether the difference between the means could be observed often if there were no difference between the populations in 1977 and 1979
- Generate fake data where there is no difference in mean beak depth, measure the difference every time
  - How often would be observe a difference greater or equal to what we observe?

#### Notation

- $x \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  means x is normally distributed with mean  $\mu$  and standard deviation  $\sigma$ 
  - Samples from x will usually be within at most  $3\sigma$  of the mean  $\mu$
- The *sample mean* is the mean of the individual measurements in the sample
  - Suppose out samples from  $N(5, 2^2)$  are 5.1, 4.95, and 4.9. The sample mean is  $\bar{x} = \frac{5.1+4.95+4.9}{2}$
  - The sample mean is often denoted  $\bar{x}$ , and the individual samples  $x_1, x_2, ..., x_n$

## Distribution of the sample mean

- Suppose  $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ , and we take n (independent) measurements  $x_1, \dots, x_n$ . Now  $x_1 \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2), x_2 \sim N(\mu, \sigma^2), \dots$
- We can also obtain the distribution of the sample mean. In fact,

$$\overline{X} \sim N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}\right)$$

- If we take n samples,  $\bar{x}$  will almost always be within  $3\sigma/\sqrt{n}$  of the mean  $\mu$
- The distribution of  $\overline{X}$  is centered around  $\mu$ 
  - Makes sense!

#### Is the mean 0?

- Suppose we sample n = 100 measurements from  $N(\mu, 2^2)$ . The sample mean is 0.2. Is there evidence against the null hypothesis that  $\mu = 0$ ?
- Assuming the null hypothesis is true,  $\overline{X} \sim N\left(0, \frac{2^2}{100}\right)$

pnorm(q = -0.2, mean = 0, sd = 2/10) + (1 - pnorm(q = 0.2, mean = 0, sd = 2/10)) = 0.32

• No strong evidence against the null hypothesis

### Is the mean 0?

- Suppose we sample n = 100 measurements from  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . The sample mean is 0.2. Is there evidence the null hypothesis that  $\mu = 0$ ?
- This time, we don't know the  $\sigma^2$ 
  - But we can estimate it using  $s^2 = \frac{(x_1 \bar{x})^2 + \dots + (x_n \bar{x})^2}{n}$
- Fact:  $\bar{x}/(\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}})$  is distributed according to t(n-1), the Student t-distribution with n-1 degrees of freedom
  - Looks very much like a normal distribution N(0, 1)unless n is relatively small (< 30)</li>
  - Assuming  $\mu = 0!!$

#### Is the mean 0?

• P-value: