# Chapter 9: Hypothesis Testing

#### Sections

### • 9.1 Problems of Testing Hypotheses

# Introduction

Statistical Inference: Given a probability model  $f(x|\theta)$  (and possibly a prior  $p(\theta)$ ) we may be interested in

- Parameter estimation Chapters 7 and 8
- Making decisions Hypothesis testing, Chapter 9
  - E.g. If the disease affects 2% or more of the population, the state will launch a costly public health campaign.
     Do we have evidence that *θ* is higher than 2% ?
- Other things like, prediction, experimental design, etc.

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Some of what lies ahead:

- The concept of testing hypotheses and several tools and notation involving that
- "Famous" tests, such as t-Test, two-sample t-Test, F-Test

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### Example: After-School

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- Customers are expected to use their own envelopes and stamps to return their payments
- Currently, the time it takes to pay bills has a mean of 24 days and a standard deviation of 6 days.



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- To test this she randomly selects 220 customers and includes a stamped self-addressed envelope with their invoice
- She assumes that the time to pay a bill follows the normal distribution N(μ, σ<sup>2</sup>), both parameters unknown
- Using the data from her experiment, how can she conclude whether this plan will be profitable?

• Have a probability model that has an unknown parameter  $\theta \in \Omega$ 

### The general setup and some definitions

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- *Hypothesis testing*: Inferential method to decide between two complimentary *hypotheses* about a parameter.

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Decide that  $\theta \in \Omega_0$  i.e. we do not reject  $H_0$ Decide that  $\theta \in \Omega_1$  i.e. we reject  $H_0$ 

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After-School example: May be interested in testing the following:

$$H_0: \mu \ge 22$$
  
 $H_1: \mu < 22$ 

# Simple vs Composite, One or Two sided

Simple and Composite hypotheses:

- If Ω<sub>i</sub> contains only a single value, Ω<sub>i</sub> = {θ<sub>i</sub>}, then H<sub>i</sub> is a simple hypothesis
- If Ω<sub>i</sub> contains more than a single value then H<sub>i</sub> is a *composite* hypothesis

One-Sided and Two-Sided (for a one-dimensional  $\theta$ )

• One-sided hypotheses:

$$\begin{array}{lll} H_0: & \theta \geq \theta_0 \\ H_1: & \theta < \theta_0 \end{array} \quad \quad \text{or} \quad \begin{array}{lll} H_0: & \theta \leq \theta_0 \\ H_1: & \theta > \theta_0 \end{array}$$

• If the Null Hypothesis is simple the alternative is usually *Two-sided*:

$$H_1$$
:  $\theta \neq \theta_0$ 

#### Say $X_1, \ldots, X_n$ are i.i.d. $f(x|\theta)$ and we are interested in testing

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# Test procedure in general

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- Procedure: Reject  $H_0$  if  $\mathbf{X} \in S_1$ , do not reject  $H_0$  if  $\mathbf{X} \in S_0$

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Test procedure based on a statistic

- Let  $T = r(\mathbf{X})$  be a statistic and  $R \subset \mathbb{R}$
- Procedure: Reject  $H_0$  if  $T \in R$ , do not reject  $H_0$  if  $T \notin R$
- *T* is called a *test statistic* and *R* is called the *rejection region* of the test

We had  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  i.i.d.  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  and we are interested in testing

 $H_0: \mu \ge 22$  and  $H_1: \mu < 22$ 

- It seems reasonable to reject  $H_0$  if  $\overline{X}_n$  is much lower than 22.
- The test procedure would be to reject H<sub>0</sub> if X<sub>n</sub> < 22 c for some positive constant c
- What is the critical region for this test?

It is usually rather difficult to work with a critical region. We usually use a test statistic and a rejection region.

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We could use the test statistic

$$U = \frac{\sqrt{n}(\overline{X}_n - 22)}{\sigma'}$$

and reject H<sub>0</sub> if U is very small, say less than some constant c.
What is the rejection region for this test ?

# **Power function**

We can describe the properties of a test procedure by:

#### **Power function**

Let  $\delta$  be a test procedure. The *power function*  $\pi(\theta|\delta)$  (or just  $\pi(\theta)$ ) is the probability of rejecting  $H_0$  for the given  $\theta$ :

$$\pi( heta|\delta) = oldsymbol{P}(oldsymbol{X} \in oldsymbol{S}_1| heta) \quad ext{for } heta \in \Omega$$

If we use a test statistic T we can write

$$\pi(\theta|\delta) = P(T \in R|\theta) \text{ for } \theta \in \Omega$$

Ideal power function:

$$\begin{aligned} \pi(\theta|\delta) &= 1 & \text{for } \theta \in \Omega_1 \\ \pi(\theta|\delta) &= 0 & \text{for } \theta \in \Omega_0 \end{aligned}$$

# Power function for after-school

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Consider the following test procedure:

- Assume that  $\sigma^2$  is known,  $\sigma^2 = 6^2$
- Reject  $H_0$  if  $\overline{X}_n < 22 c$ .
  - $\overline{X}_n$  is our test statistic
  - The rejection region is  $(-\infty, 22 c)$
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$$\pi(\theta|\delta) = \Phi\left(rac{22-c-\mu}{6/\sqrt{220}}
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We can then pick c that gives us the best power function

# Power function for after-school



#### Power function for different c

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# Power function for after-school



Power function for different c

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# Type I and Type II errors

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• *Type I error*: Wrongly deciding to reject *H*<sub>0</sub>

• Rejecting  $H_0: \theta \in \Omega_0$  when in fact  $\theta \in \Omega_0$ 

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- What are the type I and type II error for the after school example?

Relation to power function:

- If  $\theta \in \Omega_0$ :  $\pi(\theta|\delta) = \text{probability of type I error}$
- If  $\theta \in \Omega_1$ :  $1 \pi(\theta | \delta)$  = probability of type II error

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- The size  $\alpha(\delta)$  of a test is defined as

$$\alpha(\delta) = \sup_{\theta \in \Omega_0} \pi(\theta|\delta)$$

#### Corollary 9.1.1: Level and size

A test  $\delta$  is a level  $\alpha_0$  test if and only if  $\alpha(\delta) \leq \alpha_0$ 

When the null hypothesis is simple  $(H_0 : \theta = \theta_0)$  then  $\alpha(\delta) = \pi(\theta_0 | \delta)$ 

Example:

Consider again the After-School example
 We had X<sub>1</sub>,..., X<sub>n</sub> i.i.d. N(μ, σ<sup>2</sup>) and we are interested in testing

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- Again, we assume that  $\sigma^2 = 6^2$  and we reject  $H_0$  if  $\bar{X}_n < 22 c$
- Pick a c so that the test has level 0.05
- What is the size of test?

## Power function for a size 0.05 test for after-school



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# Choosing the Null and alternative hypotheses

Usually, the error of type I (rejecting  $H_0$  when it is in fact true) is more serious

After-school example:

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- In that case the school district would go ahead and send stamped self-addressed envelops to all customers and end up loosing money
- The type II error here (not rejecting *H*<sub>0</sub> when it is not true) represents lost opportunity of profit but at least the district will not lose (more) money.

Therefore it makes sense to control the probability of type I error

• We usually arrange the Null and Alternative hypotheses so that the type I error is the more serious one.

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- We usually arrange the Null and Alternative hypotheses so that the type I error is the more serious one.
- Another way to think about it: The statement we are trying to "prove" we set as the alternative hypothesis

Say we are interested in the prevalence of some disease

• If the disease affects 2% or more of the population, the state will launch a costly public health campaign.

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Which hypothesis do we test?

a) 
$$H_0: p \le 0.02$$
 and  $H_1: p > 0.02$   
b)  $H_0: p \ge 0.02$  and  $H_1: p < 0.02$ 

Some issues to ponder:

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• Which error is worse? Put that statement in the Null Hypothesis

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## Bernoulli example: Prevalence of a disease

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