

9 Hypothesis Testing

Statistical Hypotheses testing is a formal means of choosing between two distributions on the basis of a particular statistic or random variable generated from one of them.

9.1 Neyman-Pearson Paradigm

- Null hypothesis \mathcal{H}_0
- Alternate hypothesis \mathcal{H}_A or \mathcal{H}_1

There are two types of hypotheses, simple ones where the hypothesis completely specifies the distribution. Here is an example when they are both composite:

$X_i \sim \text{Poisson}$ with unknown parameter

X_i is not **Poisson**

Simple hypotheses test one value of the parameter against another, the form of the distribution remaining fixed.

9.2 Two Types of Error-the burnt toast and the smoke detector.

| | | Reality | |
|-----------|------------------------|----------------------|-----------------------|
| | | \mathcal{H}_0 true | \mathcal{H}_0 false |
| Test says | accept \mathcal{H}_0 | Good | Type II error |
| | reject \mathcal{H}_0 | Type I error | Good |

Setting up tests

1. Define the null hypothesis \mathcal{H}_0 (devil's advocate).
2. Define the alternative \mathcal{H}_A (one sided /two sided).
3. Find the test statistic.
4. Decide on the type I error: α that you are willing to take.
5. Compute the Probability of observing the data given the null hypothesis: P-value.
6. Compare the P-value to α , if its smaller, reject \mathcal{H}_0 .

9.2.1 Example

ESP experiment : guess the color of 52 cards with replacement.

$$\begin{array}{ll} \mathcal{H}_0 & T \sim \mathcal{B}(1/2, n = 10) \\ \mathcal{H}_1 & T \sim \mathcal{B}(p, n = 10), \quad p > 1/2 \end{array}$$

| p | 0 | 1 | 2 | 3 | 4 | 5 | 6 | 7 | 8 | 9 | 10 |
|----|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|-------|
| .7 | .0000 | .0001 | .0014 | .0090 | .0368 | .1029 | .2001 | .2668 | .2335 | .1211 | .0282 |
| .6 | .0001 | .0016 | .0106 | .0425 | .1115 | .2007 | .2508 | .2150 | .1209 | .0403 | .0060 |
| .5 | .0010 | .0098 | .0439 | .1172 | .2051 | .2461 | .2051 | .1172 | .0439 | .0098 | .0010 |

Rejection region $\mathbf{R} = \{8, 9, 10\}$.

$$\alpha = \mathbf{P}(X > 7) = \mathbf{P}(\mathbf{R}) = 0.0439 + 0.0098 + 0.0010 = 0.0547$$

Rejection region = $\mathbf{R} = \{7, 8, 9, 10\}$.

$$\alpha = \mathbf{P}(X > 6) = \mathbf{P}(\mathbf{R}) = 0.1172 + 0.0439 + 0.0098 + 0.0010 = 0.1719$$

In the setup, we have to choose α first. Then we can compute what the power will be under various values of \mathbf{p} :

$$\mathbf{p} = 0.6 \quad \mathbf{P}(X > 7 | \mathbf{p} = 0.6) = 0.1673$$

$$\mathbf{p} = 0.7 \quad \mathbf{P}(X > 7 | \mathbf{p} = 0.7) = 0.3828$$

As \mathbf{p} approaches 1, the power approaches one. As \mathbf{p} approaches 0.5 the power becomes equal to α .

9.3 Bayesian Version

We can give a probability of \mathcal{H}_0 being true given the data, this can actually be more meaningful than the P-value.

Consider testing:

$\mathcal{H}_0 : \theta \leq \theta_0$ against $\mathcal{H}_1 : \theta > \theta_0$,

we can calculate under the Bayesian model $\mathbf{P}(\theta \leq \theta_0)$, the integral of the pdf over $(-\infty, \theta)$.

Of course this poses a problem if the pdf is continuous and one of the hypotheses is simple.

Example: Ten sets of twins, randomized, one is given A, one is given B.

$$\mathbf{p} = \mathbf{P}(\text{trt A better than trt B})$$

$$\mathcal{H}_0 : \mathbf{p} = \frac{1}{2}$$

$$\mathcal{H}_A : \mathbf{p} \neq \frac{1}{2}$$

We observe Y , number of cases where A is better, $Y \sim \mathcal{B}(10, \mathbf{p})$.

Assign a positive prior point probability to the null hypothesis: $\mathbf{P}(\mathbf{p} = \frac{1}{2}) = \gamma$. Suppose we take a symmetric prior pdf for $\mathbf{p} \neq \frac{1}{2}$,

$$g(\mathbf{p} | \mathbf{p} \neq \frac{1}{2}) = 6\mathbf{p}(1 - \mathbf{p}), \quad 0 < \mathbf{p} < 1$$

If the experiment results in 9 wins for A and one for B, the likelihood, given this data is: $\mathbf{L}(\mathbf{p}) = \mathbf{P}(Y = 9 | \mathbf{p}) = 10\mathbf{p}^9(1 - \mathbf{p})$ We need the unconditional probability of $Y = 9$.

$$\begin{aligned} \mathbf{P}(Y = 9) &= \gamma \times (Y = 9 | \mathbf{p} = .5) + (1 - \gamma) \times \int_0^1 \mathbf{P}(Y = 9 | \mathbf{p} \neq .5) g(\mathbf{p}) d\mathbf{p} \\ &= \gamma \times 10(.5)^{10} + (1 - \gamma) \times 10 \int_0^1 6\mathbf{p}^{10}(1 - \mathbf{p})^2 d\mathbf{p} \\ &= 10 \left\{ \frac{\gamma}{1024} + \frac{1 - \gamma}{143} \right\} \end{aligned}$$

$$P(\mathcal{H}_0 | \text{data}) = \frac{143\gamma}{143\gamma + 1024(1 - \gamma)}$$

When $\gamma = 0.5$, $P(\text{no trt effect})=0.123$ after nine success; if the prior is $\gamma = .1$, the posterior probability of \mathcal{H}_0 becomes .015.

9.4 Optimal Tests for simple hypotheses

- Null hypothesis $\mathcal{H}_0 : f = f_0$
- Alternate hypothesis $\mathcal{H}_A : f = f_1$

We want to find a rejection region \mathbf{R} such that the error of both types are as small as possible.

$$\int_{\mathbf{R}} f_0(\mathbf{x}) d\mathbf{x} = \alpha \quad \text{and} \quad 1 - \beta = \int_{\mathbf{R}} f_1 d\mathbf{x}$$

Neyman-Pearson Lemma

Theorem 9.1 For testing $f_0(\mathbf{x})$ against $f_1(\mathbf{x})$ a critical region of the form

$$\Lambda(\mathbf{x}) = \frac{f_0(\mathbf{x})}{f_1(\mathbf{x})} < K$$

where K is constant has the greatest power (smallest β) in the class of tests with the same α

$$\begin{aligned} \left(\int_{\mathbf{R}} - \int_{\mathbf{S}} \right) f &= \int_{\mathbf{R} \cap \mathbf{S}^c} f - \int_{\mathbf{S} \cap \mathbf{R}^c} f \\ \beta_{\mathbf{R}} - \beta_{\mathbf{S}} &= \left(\int_{\mathbf{R}} - \int_{\mathbf{S}} \right) f_1 = \int_{\mathbf{R} \cap \mathbf{S}^c} f_1 - \int_{\mathbf{S} \cap \mathbf{R}^c} f_1 \end{aligned}$$

Since in \mathbf{R} , $f_1 \geq f_0/K$ and in \mathbf{R}^c , $-f_1 \geq -f_0/K$ we have:

$$\begin{aligned} \beta_{\mathbf{S}} - \beta_{\mathbf{R}} &\geq \frac{1}{K} \left(\int_{\mathbf{R} \cap \mathbf{S}^c} f_0 - \int_{\mathbf{S} \cap \mathbf{R}^c} f_0 \right) \\ &= \frac{1}{K} \left(\int_{\mathbf{R}} f_0 - \int_{\mathbf{S}} f_0 \right) = \frac{1}{K} (\alpha_{\mathbf{R}} - \alpha_{\mathbf{S}}) \end{aligned}$$

Example: Two simple hypotheses about Bernoulli parameter:

$$\mathcal{H}_0 : p = 0.5 \quad \mathcal{H}_1 : p = 0.25$$

| y | $f_0(\mathbf{y})$ | $f_1(\mathbf{y})$ | $\Lambda(\mathbf{y})$ |
|-----|-------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|
| 0 | .0312 | .2373 | .13 |
| 1 | .1562 | .3955 | .40 |
| 2 | .3125 | .2637 | 1.2 |
| 3 | .3125 | .0879 | 3.6 |
| 4 | .1562 | .0146 | 10.6 |
| 5 | .0312 | .0010 | 31.2 |

| \mathbf{R} | α | β | Power |
|--------------|----------|---------|-------|
| $\{ \}$ | 0 | 1 | 0 |
| $\{0\}$ | 0.031 | .763 | 0.237 |
| $\{0,1\}$ | 0.187 | .367 | 0.633 |
| $\{0,1,2\}$ | 0.500 | .103 | 0.897 |

9.4.1 Neyman Pearson Test for $\mathcal{N}(0, \theta)$

Given a random sample from \mathbf{X} the likelihood is

$$L(\theta) = \theta^{-n/2} \exp -\frac{1}{2\theta} \sum X_i^2$$

For the NP likelihood ratio test the rejection region for testing θ_1 against θ_2 is of the form:

$$\Lambda = \left(\frac{\theta_1}{\theta_2}\right)^{-n/2} \exp -\left(\frac{1}{2\theta_1} - \frac{1}{2\theta_2}\right) \sum X_i^2 < K'$$

If $\theta_1 < \theta_2$ this inequality holds for a given K' if and only if, for some K , $\sum X_i^2 > K$

The distribution of $\sum X_i^2/\theta$ is χ_n^2 and we can thus find the error sizes in this case:

$$\alpha = P\left(\sum X_i^2 > K | \theta_1\right) = 1 - F_{\chi_n^2}\left(\frac{K}{\theta_1}\right)$$

$$\beta = P\left(\sum X_i^2 < K | \theta_2\right) = F_{\chi_n^2}\left(\frac{K}{\theta_2}\right)$$

9.5 Composite Hypotheses

Typically one or both hypotheses are composite, suppose \mathcal{H}_A is composite, a test that is most powerful for all simple hypotheses contained in \mathcal{H}_A is called uniformly most powerful.

Example:

Suppose we test $\mathcal{H}_0 : p = 0.5$ based on Y , the number of 1's in a random sample of size $n = 5$. We saw that rejecting \mathcal{H}_0 for $Y < K$. We saw that rejecting \mathcal{H}_0 for $Y < K$ is most powerful against $p = 0.25$ in the class of tests with $\alpha = 0.187$. But the same is true if we were to use an arbitrary $p < 0.5$. The likelihood ratio is:

$$\Lambda = \frac{.5^Y .5^{5-Y}}{p^Y (1-p)^{5-Y}} \propto \left(\frac{1}{p} - 1\right)^Y$$

An increasing function of Y when $p < \frac{1}{2}$. So, Λ is less than a constant when Y is less than a constant. Thus $Y < K$ is most powerful against every $p < .5$; it is UMP against $\mathcal{H}_A : p < .5$.

Note:

The rejection region $\{0, 1\}$ for Y is UMP for $p = 0.5$ against $p < 0.5$, in the class of tests with $\alpha = 0.187$. The power function is

$$\pi(p) = P(Y = 0 \text{ or } 1 | p) = (1-p)^5 + 5p(1-p)^4 = (1-p)^4(1+4p)$$

This is a decreasing function of p on $(0,1)$, so its largest value on $p \geq .5$ is at $p = 0.5$. So $\alpha^* = .187 = \pi(.5) = \max \alpha$'s.

Since $\{Y \leq 1\}$ has the greatest power at any alternative $p < .5$ among tests with $\alpha \leq .187$ it has greatest power at any alternative among tests with $\alpha^* = .187$, it is UMP for $p \geq .5$ against $p < .5$.