# Lecture 7: Hypothesis testing part I Statistical Methods for Data Science

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#### Today

- Terminology
  - Experiment and the parameter of interest
  - Null hypothesis and alternative hypothesis
  - Test statistic
  - Null distribution  $f(s \mid H_0)$
  - Significance level  $\alpha$ , power and p-value
- 2 Example
- Summary





#### Learning outcome

- Be able to explain the following terminology
  - Null hypothesis  $H_0$  and alternative hypothesis  $H_A$
  - Test statistic s
  - Null distribution  $f(s \mid H_0)$
  - ullet Significance level lpha and power
  - p-value
- Be able to design and interpret the one-sample z-test





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#### Example

If you control the diet of your ducks, they lose 2.1 kg after one month on average

- Company A has developed a drug D to help ducks lose weight. They claim that on average the drug works better than diet control
- Company B has developed a drug E and they claim that drug E is more effective than drug D on average

You need to help your chonker ducks lose weight. Which drug do you buy? Or should you just control their diet?

- If company A tested drug D on 30 ducks and the average weight loss after one month is 2.2 kg, would you buy drug D instead of regular diet control?
- What if company A tested drug D on 30 ducks and the average weight loss after one month is 2.3 kg? Would you buy drug D instead of regular diet control in this case?
- What if company A tested drug D on 100 ducks and the average weight loss after one month is 2.3 kg?
- Now company B tested drug E on 30 ducks and the average weight loss after one month is 2.5 kg, while drug D results in 2.3 kg weight loss with the same setup, would you buy drug E instead of drug D?

How would you make your decision?





#### Hypothesis

- Hypothesis: a hypothesis is a proposed explanation for a phenomenon (wikipedia)
- Statistical hypothesis: a proposed distribution that explains a set of random variables
- Hypothesis testing in statistics: we want to decide if it is likely that the random variables follow the distribution proposed by the statistical hypothesis
  - The test is based on sample statistics, which are computed from data
  - ullet Hypothesis + data o decision on rejecting/not rejecting the hypothesis





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### Hypothesis testing: a list to go through

- A "boring" statement
- Experiment
- Data x, random variable X
- ullet Parameter of interest heta
- Parameter estimate  $\hat{\theta}$
- Null hypothesis  $H_0$
- Alternative hypothesis H<sub>A</sub>
- Test statistic s
- Null distribution  $f(s \mid H_0)$
- ullet Significance level  $\alpha$
- p-value





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Experiment and the parameter of interest





#### Experiment design

- Before formulating the statistical hypothesis, we need a "boring" statement: a claim that we would like to test against, e.g. drug D is not more effective than regular diet on average; drug E works the same as drug D on average
- How do we test the "boring" statement? We design and run experiments to collect evidence (data)
- Example 1: recall if you control the diet of your ducks, they lose 2.1 kg after one month on average
  - A "boring" statement: drug D is not more effective than regular diet on average
  - Experiment (5 sec): test drug D on N chonker ducks and record the average weight loss after one month
  - Data and random variable (5 sec): data  $x_i$  weight loss after one month for  $i = 1, \dots, N$ ; random variable  $X_i$  i.i.d.
  - Parameter of interest (5 sec): the average weight loss  $\mu_D$
  - Parameter estimate (5 sec):  $\hat{\mu_D} = \bar{x} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i$

Then we can use  $\bar{x}$  to approximate  $\mu_D$  and check if it is greater than diet control (2.1 kg)





#### Experiment design (cont.)

- Example 2:
  - A "boring" statement: drug E and drug D work the same on average
  - Experiment (5 sec): test drug D on  $N_D$  chonker ducks and record the average weight loss after one month; test drug E on another  $N_E$  chonker ducks and record the average weight loss after one month
  - Data and random variable (5 sec): data  $x_i$  weight loss for drug D after one month for  $i=1,\cdots,N_D$ ; random variable  $X_i$  i.i.d.; likewise, we have data  $y_j$  and random variable  $Y_j$  for drug E
  - Parameter of interest (5 secs): the average weight loss  $\mu_D$  and  $\mu_E$  for drug D and E, respectively
  - Parameter estimate (5 secs):  $\hat{\mu}_D = \bar{x} = \frac{1}{N_D} \sum_{i=1}^{N_D} x_i$  and  $\hat{\mu}_E = \bar{y} = \frac{1}{N_E} \sum_{i=1}^{N_E} y_i$

Then we use  $\bar{x}$  and  $\bar{y}$  to approximate  $\mu_D$  and  $\mu_E$  to see if they are the same





#### Experiment design (cont.)

- We make our decision by observing data; if the evidence does not support the "boring" statement, we reject the statement; otherwise, we do not reject the statement
- But we can never prove or accept the statement we can only reject
  a statement by showing counterexamples
- The logic here is: if the statement is true, then the evidence must support the statement 

   if the evidence does not support the statement, the statement must be false 

   if the evidence supports the statement, the statement must be true



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### Null hypothesis and alternative hypothesis





# Hypotheses $H_0$ and $H_A$

- Statistical hypothesis: a proposed distribution a statement in terms of the parameter of interest
- Null hypothesis H<sub>0</sub>: the "boring" statement translated into a mathematical expression
  - Example 1: drug D is not more effective than regular diet on average

$$H_0: \mu_D = 2.1$$

• Example 2: drug E and drug D work the same on average (5 sec)

$$H_0: \mu_D = \mu_E$$

- Alternative hypothesis H<sub>A</sub>: a complementary alternative explanation to the "boring" statement
  - Example 1: drug D is more effective than regular diet on average (5 sec)

$$H_A: \mu_D > 2.1$$

• Example 2: drug E and drug D do not work the same on average (5 sec)







#### Hypotheses $H_0$ and $H_A$ (cont.)

#### Questions:

- Question 1: why are  $H_A$ :  $\mu_D > 2.1$  and  $H_0$ :  $\mu_D = 2.1$  complementary to each other? What about  $H_A$ :  $\mu_D < 2.1$ ?
- Answer: an implicit assumption here is that  $\mu_D$  will not be smaller than 2.1
- Question 2: can  $H_0$  and  $H_A$  be ANYTHING I want? Like a magic mirror!? Answer: no
- Follow up question: what are the choices for  $H_0$  and  $H_A$ ?





#### Choices for $H_0$

- In this course, we only deal with null hypotheses with an equal sign in them only one fixed choice for the distribution proposed by  $H_0$
- Null hypothesis  $H_0$ : two cases
  - One-sample test: to test a data distribution against a theoretical probability distribution, i.e. for a given constant c

$$H_0: \theta = c$$

For example, is a binary classifier more accurate than random?  $H_0: p = 50\%$ 

 Two-sample test: to test a data distribution against another data distribution, i.e.

$$H_0: \theta_1 = \theta_2$$

For example, is classifier A better than classifier B?  $H_0: p_A = p_B$ 

- We have seen one-sample test and two-sample test in the Q-Q plot lecture
- In practice, you can narrow down your choice of hypotheses by making a Q-Q plot





#### Choices for $H_A$

#### Given

$$H_0: \theta = \beta$$

where  $\beta$  can be either a constant (one-sample test) or a parameter from another data distribution (two-sample test)

- Alternative hypothesis  $H_A$ :  $H_A$  can be one-tailed or two-tailed
  - One-tailed:

$$H_A: \theta > \beta$$

or

$$H_A: \theta < \beta$$

Two-tailed:

$$H_A: \theta \neq \beta \iff \theta < \beta \text{ or } \theta > \beta$$





# Summary: choices for $H_0$ and $H_A$

Putting everything together,

	One-sample test	Two-sample test
Two-tailed	$H_0: \theta = c, H_A: \theta \neq c$	$H_0: \theta_1 = \theta_2, H_A: \theta_1 \neq \theta_2$
One-tailed	$H_0: \theta = c, H_A: \theta > c$	$H_0: \theta_1 = \theta_2, H_A: \theta_1 > \theta_2$
	$H_0: \theta = c, H_A: \theta < c$	$H_0: \theta_1 = \theta_2, H_A: \theta_1 < \theta_2$

where  $\theta$ ,  $\theta_1$ ,  $\theta_2$  are the parameters of interest and c is a constant





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#### Test statistic





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#### Test statistic

- Test statistic s, random variable S: the statistic used for testing the hypothesis
  - s is the observation
  - Given a set of parameters of interest and a set of estimates, s is typically a standardized statistic computed from the estimates
  - Purpose: to compare s with a standard distribution, e.g. the standard Gaussian distribution  $\mathcal{N}(0,1)$ , to see if it is likely that the standard distribution is the underlying distribution of S, i.e. if the null hypothesis is plausible
- What is needed for computing the test statistic?
  - Assumptions on random variables  $X_i$
  - We only need the null hypothesis  $H_0$  (not  $H_A$ ) to choose the test statistic

Note: in this course, we only deal with null hypothesis where we are able to express the PDF/PMF  $f(s \mid H_0)$ , i.e.  $H_0$  with an equal sign in them





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#### Test statistic (cont.)

- Example 1. one-sample test
  - Data:  $x_1, \dots, x_N$
  - Random variable:  $X_1, \dots, X_N$  i.i.d. Gaussian with known  $\sigma$
  - Parameter of interest: μ<sub>D</sub>
  - Parameter estimate:  $\bar{x}$
  - Null hypothesis:  $H_0$ :  $\mu_D = 2.1$
  - Test statistic: standardized  $\bar{x}$  assuming the null hypothesis (15 sec)

$$z = \frac{\bar{x} - 2.1}{\sigma / \sqrt{N}}$$

- Example 2. two-sample test
  - Data:  $x_1, \dots, x_{N_D}$  and  $y_1, \dots, y_{N_E}$
  - Random variable:  $X_1, \cdots, X_{N_D}$  i.i.d. Gaussian with known  $\sigma_D$ ;  $Y_1, \cdots, Y_{N_E}$  i.i.d. Gaussian with known  $\sigma_E$ ;  $X_i$  and  $Y_j$  independent
  - Parameter of interest:  $\mu_D$ ,  $\mu_E$
  - Parameter estimate:  $\bar{x}$ ,  $\bar{y}$
  - Null hypothesis:  $H_0: \mu_D = \mu_E \iff H_0: \mu_D \mu_E = 0$
  - Test statistic: standardized  $\bar{x} \bar{y}$  assuming the null hypothesis

$$z = rac{ar{x} - ar{y}}{\sqrt{\sigma_D^2/N_D + \sigma_E^2/N_E}}$$
 (explained later)





Terminology Example Summary Experiment and the parameter of interest Null hypothesis and alternative hypothesis Test statistic

Null distribution  $f(s \mid H_0)$ Significance level  $\alpha$ , power and p-value

# Null distribution $f(s \mid H_0)$





Null distribution  $f(s \mid H_0)$ 

#### Null distribution

- Null distribution  $f(s \mid H_0)$ : the distribution of the test statistic given the null hypothesis
- Example:
  - Data:  $x_1, \dots, x_N$
  - Random variable:  $X_1, \dots, X_N$  i.i.d. Gaussian with known  $\sigma$
  - Parameter of interest:  $\mu$
  - Parameter estimate:  $\bar{x}$
  - Null hypothesis:  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$
  - Test statistic:

$$z = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{\sigma / \sqrt{N}}$$

• Null distribution: standard Gaussian distribution



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# Significance level $\alpha$ , power and p-value





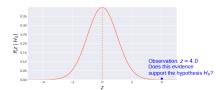
Experiment and the parameter of interest Null hypothesis and alternative hypothesis Test statistic Null distribution  $f(s \mid H_0)$  Significance level  $\alpha$ , power and p-value

#### Significance level

Given a null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu=2.1$  and the null distribution  $f(s\mid H_0)$ , we decide if we reject the hypothesis or not by observing data

- ullet Run some experiments and collect data  $x_1, \cdots, x_N$
- Estimate the parameter of interest  $\hat{\theta}$ , e.g.  $\hat{\mu} = \bar{x} = \frac{1}{N} \sum_{i=1}^{N} x_i$
- ullet Standardize  $\hat{ heta}$  assuming  $H_0$  to compute the test statistic, e.g.

$$z = \frac{\bar{x} - 2.1}{\sigma / \sqrt{N}} = 4.0$$



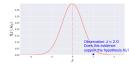
• Does this evidence support the hypothesis  $H_0$ ? Probably not since it's so far away from the center?





# Significance level (cont.)

• What about this observation?



- To be able to answer the question, you need to decide where you draw the line define a rejection region by choosing a significance level
- Significance level  $\alpha$ : red area under the curve



In these three images,  $\alpha = 0.05$ 

More conservative  $\Rightarrow$  less probable to reject  $H_0$ , which indicates a smaller rejection region Two-tailed  $H_A$  is more conservative





Experiment and the parameter of interest Null hypothesis and alternative hypothesis Test statistic Null distribution  $f(s \mid H_0)$  Significance level  $\alpha$ , power and p-value

# Significance level (cont.)

What is needed for choosing a meaningful  $\alpha$ ?

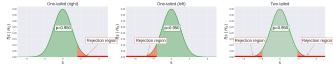
- Null distribution
- H<sub>A</sub> one-tailed or two-tailed





#### Interpretation of $\alpha$

•  $\alpha = P(reject \ H_0 \mid H_0 \ is \ true)$  - the probability of making such a mistake



- The rejection region indicates that  $H_0$  is **unlikely**, but the probability is not zero
- It is possible that H<sub>0</sub> is true, but our observation happens to fall in the rejection region
- If H<sub>0</sub> is true and our observation falls in the rejection region, we will mistakenly reject H<sub>0</sub>
- ullet The probability of making this type of mistakes is lpha
- Similar to the confidence interval,  $1-\alpha$  is called the confidence level "with 95% confidence, rejecting  $H_0$  is the right thing to do"
- Define the significance level before you run the experiments so that you can't cheat!





# Significance level and power

Contingency table:

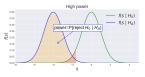
	$y = H_A$	$y = H_0$
$\hat{y} = \text{reject } H_0$	TP	FP (Type I error)
$\hat{y} = \text{do not reject } H_0$	FN (Type II error)	TN

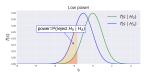
• Significance level  $\alpha$ : incorrectly rejecting  $H_0$ 

$$\alpha = P(\mathsf{type}\;\mathsf{I}\;\mathsf{error})$$

• Power: correctly rejecting  $H_0$ 

power = 
$$P(\text{reject } H_0 \mid H_A) = 1 - P(\text{type II error})$$





• What is needed for computing the power?  $f(s \mid H_0)$ ,  $f(s \mid H_A)$ 



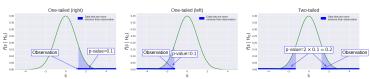


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#### *p*-value

- p-value:
  - One-tailed:
    - Right tail:  $p = P(S > s \mid H_0)$
    - Left tail:  $p = P(S \le s \mid H_0)$
  - Two-tailed:  $p = 2 \min (P(S \le s \mid H_0), P(S \ge s \mid H_0))$ Note: for example, if  $f(s \mid H_0)$  is symmetric around zero and s < 0,

$$p = 2P(S \le s \mid H_0)$$



- What is needed for computing the p-value? (10 sec)
  - Null distribution
  - $\bullet$  Alternative hypothesis  $H_A$  to know one-tailed or two-tailed
  - Observation test statistic computed from data





### Summary: steps for hypothesis testing

- Step 1 Make a "boring" statement
- Step 2 Design an experiment
- Step 3 Describe the data generated from the experiment and the corresponding random variables
- Step 4 Describe the parameter of interest and their estimates
- Step 5 Translate the "boring" statement into a statistical hypothesis and call it the null hypothesis  $H_0$
- Step 6 Find the expression for the **test statistic** *s*
- Step 7 Find the expression for the null distribution
- Step 8 Define an alternative hypothesis  $H_A$ : one-tailed or two-tailed
- Step 9 Choose a significance level  $\alpha$  (the tail), which defines the rejection region
- Step 10 Collect data
- Step 11 Compute the test statistic from data
- Step 12 Compute the *p*-value
- Step 13 If p-value<  $\alpha$ , i.e. the test statistic falls in the rejection region of the null distribution, then we reject the hypothesis  $H_0$ .





# Today

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#### Example

Recall example: if you control the diet of your ducks, they lose 2.1 kg after one month on average. Company A has developed a drug D to help ducks lose weight. They claim that on average the drug works better than diet control. Here is the set up for the experiment.

- Step 1 Make a "boring" statement (5 secs): drug D works the same as diet
- Step 2 Design an experiment (choose N = 30) (10 secs): let 30 chonker ducks take drug D and measure their weight loss after one month
- Step 3 Describe the data and random variables with assumptions about their distributions (5 secs): weight loss  $x_1, \dots, x_{30}$ ;  $X_1, \dots, X_{30}$  i.i.d. Gaussian random variables let's make an additional assumption to simplify the problem the standard deviation of  $X_i$   $\sigma = 0.6$  is known
- Step 4 Describe the parameter of interest and their estimates (10 secs): the mean value  $\mu_D$  and  $\hat{\mu}_D = \bar{x}$
- Step 5 Translate the "boring" statement into a statistical hypothesis and call it the **null hypothesis**  $H_0$  (10 secs):  $H_0: \mu_D=2.1$
- Step 6 Find the expression for the **test statistic** *s* (60 secs):

$$s = z = \frac{\bar{x} - 2.1}{\sigma\sqrt{30}}$$

Step 7 Find the expression for the **null distribution**  $f(s \mid H_0)$  (10 secs):

$$f(z\mid H_0) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}}e^{-\frac{x^2}{2}}$$





Step 8 Define an alternative hypothesis  $H_A$  (10 secs):

$$H_A: \mu_D \neq 2.1 \text{ or } H_A: \mu_D > 2.1$$

One-tailed or two-tailed

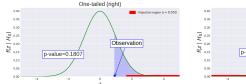
- Two-tailed (5 secs):  $H_A: \mu_D \neq 2.1$
- One-tailed (5 secs):  $H_A: \mu_D > 2.1$
- Step 9 Choose a significance level  $\alpha$  (the tail), which defines the rejection region (5 secs): e.g.  $\alpha=0.05$
- Step 10 Collect 30 ducks in 20 secs and feed them drugs great job! Weights measured after one month  $x_1, \dots, x_{30}$ 
  - Say  $\frac{1}{30} \sum_{i=1}^{30} x_i = 2.2$
- Step 11 Compute the test statistic from data (5 secs):

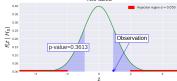
$$z_0 = \frac{2.2 - 2.1}{0.6/\sqrt{30}} = 0.91$$





- Step 12 Compute the *p*-value (20 secs):
  - For  $H_A: \mu_D > 2.1$  (one-tailed):  $p = P(Z \ge z_0 \mid H_0) = 0.1807 > \alpha$
  - For  $H_A: \mu_D \neq 2.1$  (two-tailed):  $p = 2P(Z \geq z_0 \mid H_0) = 0.3613 > \alpha$
- Step 13 If p-value<  $\alpha$ , i.e. the test statistic falls in the rejection region of the null distribution, then we reject the hypothesis  $H_0$





Two-tailed

Do not reject  $H_0$  for both one-tailed and two-tailed  $H_A$ 



What if  $\bar{x} = 2.3$ ?

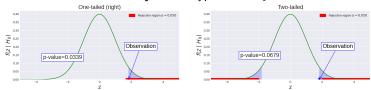
Step 11 Compute the test statistic from data (5 secs):

$$z_0 = \frac{2.3 - 2.1}{0.6/\sqrt{30}} = 1.826$$

Step 12 Compute the *p*-value (20 secs):

- For  $H_A: \mu_D > 2.1$  (one-tailed):  $p = P(Z \ge z_0 \mid H_0) = 0.0339 < \alpha$
- For  $H_A: \mu_D \neq 2.1$  (two-tailed):  $p = 2P(Z \geq z_0 \mid H_0) = 0.0679 > \alpha$

Step 13 If p-value  $< \alpha$ , i.e. the test statistic falls in the rejection region of the null distribution, then we reject the hypothesis  $H_0$ 



Reject  $H_0$  for one-tailed  $H_A$ ; do not reject  $H_0$  for two-tailed  $H_A$  for the same confidence level  $1 - \alpha = 5\%$ 

Note: the two-tailed test is more conservative - if the data passes a two-tailed test, it is more conclusive than one-tailed test for the same confidence level





What if  $\bar{x} = 2.3$  with N = 100?

Step 11 Compute the test statistic from data (5 secs):

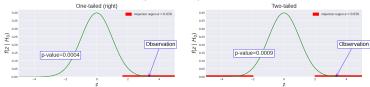
$$z_0 = \frac{2.3 - 2.1}{0.6/\sqrt{100}} = 3.33$$

Step 12 Compute the *p*-value (20 secs):

- For  $H_A: \mu_D > 2.1$  (one-tailed):  $p = P(Z \ge z_0 \mid H_0) = 0.0004 < \alpha$
- For  $H_A: \mu_D \neq 2.1$  (two-tailed):  $p = 2P(Z \geq z_0 \mid H_0) = 0.0009 < \alpha$



Step 13 If p-value  $< \alpha$ , i.e. the test statistic falls in the rejection region of the null distribution, then we reject the hypothesis  $H_0$ 



Reject  $H_0$  for both one-tailed and two-tailed  $H_A$ 

#### Note:

• With more data, it becomes more certain that we should reject  $H_0$  in favor of  $H_A$  given the observation  $\bar{x} = 2.3$ 

This test is called one-sample z-test





# Today

- 1 Terminology
- 2 Example
- Summary





#### Summary

#### So far:

- Data types and data containers
- Descriptive data analysis: descriptive statistics, visualization
- Probability distributions, events, random variables, PMF, PDF, parameters
- CDF, Q-Q plot, how to compare two distributions (data vs theoretical, data vs data)
- Modeling
- Parameter estimation: maximum likelihood estimation (MLE) and maximum a posteriori estimation (MAP)
- Classification, multinomial naive Bayes classifier, Gaussian naive Bayes classifier
- Central limit theorem, interval estimation
- Hypothesis test

#### Next:

More examples, test statistics; comparison of two classifiers

#### Before next lecture:

Steps for hypothesis testing



