Hypothesis Testing (Ch. 4)

- The <u>Null Hypothesis</u>: disproving a scientific theory is much easier than proving one.
- Thus,
 - "diabetic patients do not have raised blood pressure"
 - "oral contraceptives do not cause breast cancer"

Statistical Inference

- Hypothesis Testing: method of deciding whether the data are consistent with the null hypothesis.
- Given a study with a single outcome measure and a statistical test, hypothesis testing can be summarized in three steps:
 - 1. Choose a significance level, α , of the test.
 - 2. Conduct the study, observe the outcome, and compute the <u>p-value</u>.
 - 3. ...

Statistical Inference

3. If the p-value $\langle = \alpha \rightarrow \rangle$ data are not consistent with the null hypothesis.

If p-value > α , do not reject the null hypothesis, and view it as "not yet disproven".

- Do not confuse the significance level and the pvalue!
- If one rejects the null hypothesis when it is in fact true, then one makes a <u>Type I error</u>.
- The significance level α is the probability of making a Type I error. This is set <u>before</u> the test is carried out. The p-value is the result observed <u>after</u> the study is completed.

Hypothesis Testing (Ch. 4)

- <u>Two Sample z-Test</u>: We wish to test the null hypothesis that the means of two populations, estimated from two independent samples, are equal, when the samples are large.
- Sample 1: number of subjects n_1 , mean \overline{x}_1 , standard deviation s_1 .
- Sample 2: number of subjects n_2 , mean \overline{x}_2 , standard deviation s_2 .

Two Sample z-Test

- Assumptions:
 - 1. data are normally distributed
 - 2. data are independent
 - 3. samples are large (> \sim 30 for n₁, n₂)
- Calculate the <u>standard error of the difference</u> between the means:

$$SE(\overline{x}_1 - \overline{x}_2) = (s_1^2/n_1 + s_2^2/n_2)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

$$z = (\overline{x}_1 - \overline{x}_2)/SE(\overline{x}_1 - \overline{x}_2)$$

Two Sample z-Test

- Under the null hypothesis, z is distributed approximately as a normal distribution with mean = 0 and standard deviation = 1.
- A 95% confidence interval for the difference is:

$$(\overline{x}_1 - \overline{x}_2) \pm 1.96 SE(\overline{x}_1 - \overline{x}_2)$$

Two Sample z Test

Example of 2-sample z-test:

Diastolic: during expansion of the heart

- Diabetics' diastolic blood pressure: $n_1=100$, $\overline{x}_1=135$ mmHg, $s_1=10$ mmHg
- Controls' diastolic blood pressure: $n_2=90$, $\overline{x}_2=125$ mmHg, $s_2=6$ mmHg

$$SE(\overline{x}_1 - \overline{x}_2) = 1.18, z = 8.47$$

from Table of Normal distribution:

$$z = 3.09 \rightarrow p=0.002,$$

thus $z=8.47 \rightarrow p<0.002$

Two-Sample z-Test

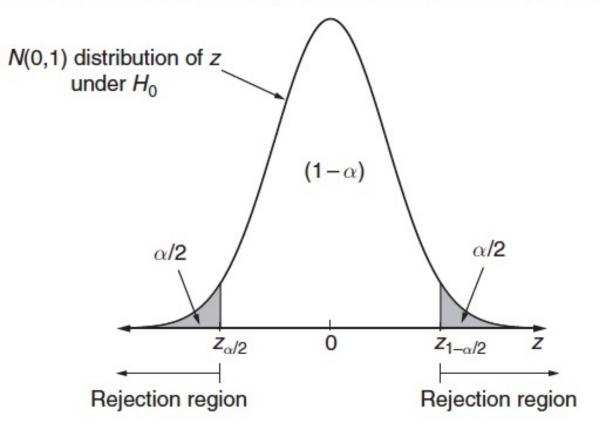
 A 95% confidence interval for the difference in blood pressure between the groups is:

$$7.7 - 12.3 \text{ mmHg}$$

Does not intersect 0 → reject null hypothesis

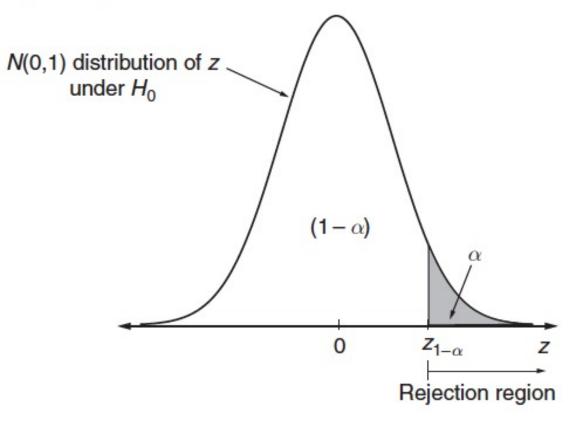
Two-sided test

Two-sided z test; z follows the N(0,1) distribution curve when H_0 is true. The shaded areas are the rejection regions.



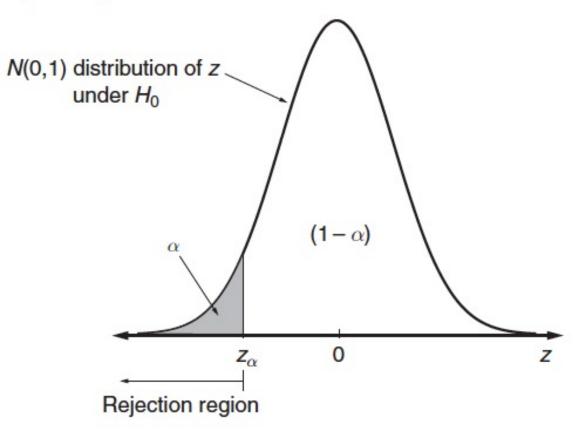
One-sided test

One-sided z test for an alternate hypothesis with positive directionality. The shaded area located in the right tail is the rejection region.



The "other" one-sided test

One-sided z test for an alternate hypothesis with negative directionality. The shaded area located in the left tail is the rejection region.



Two Sample z Test of Proportions

- Provided the sample sizes in the two groups are large, same method can be used on two proportions.
- Population mean $\mu_i \leftarrow \rightarrow$ sample mean x_i
- Population proportions of success: π_A , π_B
 - \sim sample statistics: p_A , p_B
- Standard error for difference $p_1 p_2$ given by:

$$SE(p_1 - p_2) = (p_1(1-p_1)/m + p_2(1-p_2)/n)^{\frac{1}{2}}$$

(Note difference from population means)

Two sample z-test of proportions

• Example: Clinical trial by Familiari et al., (1981) [Clin. Trial J., <u>18</u>:383] comparing two drugs for treatment of peptic ulcers.

Drug	Healed	Not Healed	Total	% healed
A: Pirenzepine	e 23 (a)	7 (c)	30 (m)	76.67
B: Trithiozine	18 (b)	13 (d)	31 (n)	58.06
Total	41	20	61 (N)	

$$n_p=30$$
, $p_p = a/m = 0.7667$
 $n_T=31$, $p_T = b/n = 0.5806$

Two sample z test of proportions

$$\overline{d}$$
=0.1861, SE(\overline{d}) = 0.1175

• The 95% confidence interval for δ is:

$$-0.0442$$
 to $+0.4164$

 Although there is an observed advantage of 0.1861 (19%) for pirenzepine over trithiozine, the 95% confidence interval includes the null hypothesis value of zero.

- The choice of 95% for a confidence interval is quite arbitrary, although it has become conventional in the medical literature.
- A general $100(1-\alpha)\%$ confidence interval can be calculated using:

$$\overline{d} + z_{\alpha} \times SE(\overline{d})$$

• z_{α} is the value along the Normal distribution table which leaves a total probability of a equally divided in the two tails.

• If α =0.05, then 100(1 – α)% = 95%, z_{α} =1.96, and the 95% confidence interval is given as:

$$\overline{d}$$
 + 1.96 x SE(d)

• In the comparison of the two treatments for peptic ulcer, a more general confidence interval for δ is:

$$0.1861 \pm (z_{\alpha} \times 0.1175)$$

• Suppose that z_{α} is now chosen such that the lower limit equals zero. That is, the confidence interval just includes the null hypothesis value of $\delta = \pi_A - \pi_B = 0$.

$$0.1861 - (z_{\alpha} \times 0.1175) = 0$$

 $z_{\alpha} = 0.1861/0.1175 = 1.58$

• From the Normal distribution table, α =0.11 and 100(1 – α)% = 89%.

• The 89% confidence interval is:

$$0.1861 \pm (1.58 \times 0.1175)$$

or $0 - 0.37$.

- The calculated value of α is termed the <u>p-value</u>.
- The p-value is the probability of obtaining the observed difference (or other extreme) if the null hypothesis is true.