

I Principle:

The question of hypothesis testing is different from the estimation problem. We are not trying to find an approximation of an unknown parameter or trying to provide the user with a confidence interval but we want to decide whether an hypothesis is true and.

The main difference lies in the hypothesis which assumes some properties of the random variable that we expect to confirm or not thanks to the observations.

Let Θ be the set of parameters such that the statistical model has a parametric distribution is

$\{P_{\alpha}, \alpha \in \mathcal{A}\}$. Let α_0 and α_1 s.t. $\mathcal{U}_0 \cap \mathcal{U}_1 = \emptyset$ and $\mathcal{U}_0 \cup \mathcal{U}_1 \subseteq \mathcal{U}$

Let $H_0: \{ \theta \in \Theta_0 \}$ and $H_1: \{ \theta \in \Theta_1 \}$ be two hypothesis

def (power test) A power test of H_0 against H_1 is a measurable function ϕ s.t.

- If $\varphi(z) = 0$, we accept H_0 (called the null hypothesis) (or equivalently we reject H_1 called the alternative hypothesis)
- If $\varphi(z) = 1$, we reject H_0 (or equivalently we accept H_1)

The sets $\mathcal{R} = \{z \in \mathbb{Z} : \ell(z) = 1\}$ is the reject region of the test ℓ and

$A = \{z \in \mathbb{Z} : \psi(z) = 0\}$ is the acceptance region.

Example: Let $Z \sim \mathcal{P}(\theta, 1)$, we only observe one sample of Z

let $\lambda > 0$, $\mathcal{C}_0 = \{0\}$ and $\mathcal{C}_1 = \{\lambda\}$

One can propose a very intuitive test: we accept H_0 if the observation is closer to

o than to 2. This leads us to $\mathcal{R} = \{z \in \mathbb{R} : z > \frac{2}{\epsilon}\}$ and

$$\mathcal{A} = \{z \in \mathbb{R} : z \leq \frac{1}{e}\}$$

In this case $\varphi(z) = 1_{\{z > \frac{1}{\alpha}\}}$

def. When the set \mathcal{X}_0 is a singleton (i.e. $\mathcal{X}_0 = \{x\}$) the hypothesis is called simple; otherwise it is called composite.

Example: (survey) The aim of this survey is to know if candidate A is the winner.

We ask randomly people in the street if they voted for A or B. The random variable which models this process is a Bernoulli of parameter θ . The test is therefore to know if $\theta \leq \theta_0 = \frac{1}{2}$ (we assume that $0 \leftrightarrow A$ and $1 \leftrightarrow B$) where θ is therefore the probability of voting for B.

$$\Theta_0 = \{ \theta \in [0,1] : \theta \leq \theta_0 \} \quad \text{and} \quad \Theta_1 = \{ \theta \in [0,1] : \theta > \theta_0 \}$$

We have access to x_1, \dots, x_n samples. The question is not: find $\hat{\theta}_n$ which is close to θ or find $[a_n, b_n]$ a confidence interval st $\theta \in [a_n, b_n]$ with a certain probability. But tell if $\theta \leq \theta_0 = \frac{1}{2}$ with an evaluation of the reliability of our answer.

In this example, we can choose the following statistic: for some $t \geq 0$

$$\varphi(x_1, \dots, x_n) = \mathbb{1}_{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \geq t} \quad \text{where } x_i = 1 \text{ if } i \text{ voted for B and } 0 \text{ otherwise.}$$

$$\text{So the test is } Z = (x_1, \dots, x_n) : \varphi(Z) = \mathbb{1}_{\sum_{i=1}^n x_i \geq t}$$

The rejection region is the region for which at least t persons voted for B

$$R = \{ (x_1, \dots, x_n) \in \{0,1\}^n : \sum_{i=1}^n x_i \geq t \}$$

If the rejection region writes $R = \{ z \in Z : T(z) \geq c \}$ where T is a statistic and c a threshold then T is called hypothesis testing statistic and c is a critical value.

As one can see, there are 2 errors that can arise:

- ① rejecting H_0 although H_0 is true
 - ② Accepting H_0 although H_0 is false
- they are not symmetric. Imagine if H_0 = {innocent} it sounds "better" to have the lowest α even if it creates errors of type ② \rightarrow better in France...

Now that we can build tests, one have to choose a "good" one. To this purpose we have to introduce the notion of power.

def: the power function of a test φ is given by

$$\beta_\varphi : \Theta \rightarrow [0,1] \\ \theta \mapsto \mathbb{P}_\theta (Z \in R) = \mathbb{P}_\theta (\varphi(Z) = 1)$$

We can now use this function to quantify the 2 types of errors.

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In this setting, one can see 3 different cases:

(i). $D_0 = \{Z < \hat{\mu} - z_{1-\alpha}\} \rightarrow$ both hypothesis decide $\theta = 0$

(ii). $D_1 = \{Z > \hat{\mu} + z_{1-\alpha}\} \rightarrow$ both hypothesis decide $\theta = 1$

(iii). $D_2 = \{\hat{\mu} - z_{1-\alpha} \leq Z \leq \hat{\mu} + z_{1-\alpha}\} \rightarrow$ the decision depends on the choice of H_0 .

these regions correspond to 3 equivalent cases where we were looking for confidence intervals

I_α of level $1-\alpha$ for θ , knowing that $\theta \in \{0, 1\}$

(i). When $Z \in D_0$, the confidence interval only contains 0

(ii). When $Z \in D_1$, the confidence interval only contains 1

(iii). When $Z \in D_2$, both 0 and 1 belong to I_α .

If you are considering the problem with a confidence interval point of view then the last region D_2 would suggest that both values are relevant this means that just looking at the data is not sufficient to make a decision.

However, looking at this problem with a test point of view requires to introduce some prior information: what is put in H_0 . The decision in the Neyman-Pearson's framework is then to choose this prior knowledge that is to say accept H_0 .

This example enables to understand the general principle which says that it is always easier to accept the null hypothesis H_0 rather than the alternative one.

In practice therefore the crucial question when constructing a hypothesis test is to choose H_0 .

Examples: For a clinical trial in order to test the efficiency of a new drug, H_0 will be

that the drug has no effect \rightarrow If you are a customer of a company, you may not have the same H_0 ...

• Testing the security of a place subject to natural risks, it is better to reject a place although it was not risky that accepting a place of high risk. Therefore H_0 is this place is risky.

One can wonder now whether there exists one (at least) best test φ among the family of test of level α . This question again got an answer thanks to Neyman-Pearson.

Def: (Neyman's principle): let $\alpha \in (0,1)$ a risk level. the test φ^* is optimal (also called uniformly more powerful UMP) to test $H_0: \theta \in \Theta_0$ against $H_1: \theta \in \Theta_1$

if φ^* satisfies: $\bar{\alpha}(\varphi^*) \leq \alpha$ and $\forall \varphi$ s.t. $\bar{\alpha}(\varphi) \leq \alpha$ then
 $\forall \theta \in \Theta_1 \quad \beta_\theta(\varphi) \leq \beta_\theta(\varphi^*) \quad (\text{i.e. } P_\theta(Z \in \mathcal{R}_\varphi) \leq P_\theta(Z \in \mathcal{R}_{\varphi^*}))$

In the case of 2 simple hypothesis, one knows how to get φ^* .

let $\Theta_0 = \{\theta_0\}$ and $\Theta_1 = \{\theta_1\}$ then:

Theorem: (Neyman-Pearson's lemma) In this particular setting, there exist an optimal test φ^* and one can construct explicitly φ^*

IV P-value:

What we have seen in the previous section leads to a binary decision: Accept or Reject H_0 .

We introduce here a different notion; the p-value, which enables to quantify the level of uncertainty.

Def: (p-value) Consider a statistical model where we have an observation Z (which can be a n-tuple!)

We assume that $Z \sim P_\theta$ for some $\theta \in \Theta$.

let $\{\varphi_\alpha, \alpha \in (0,1)\}$ a family of pure tests such that φ_α is of level α

$$\left(\text{i.e. } \forall \alpha \in (0,1) \quad \bar{\alpha}(\varphi_\alpha) = \sup_{\theta \in \Theta_0} \beta_{\varphi_\alpha}(\theta) = \sup_{\theta \in \Theta_0} P_\theta(Z \in \mathcal{R}_{\varphi_\alpha}) \leq \alpha \right. \\ \left. (= \sup_{\theta \in \Theta_0} E_\theta[\varphi_\alpha(Z)]) \right)$$

such that $\forall 0 \leq \alpha \leq \alpha' < 1, \quad \mathcal{R}_{\varphi_\alpha} \subset \mathcal{R}_{\varphi_{\alpha'}}$.

the p-value of this family is $\hat{\alpha}(Z) = \inf \{ \alpha \in (0,1), Z \in \mathcal{R}_{\varphi_\alpha} \}$

Interpretation: the p-value of the test is $\hat{\alpha}$ st H_0 is always rejected for any $\alpha \geq \hat{\alpha}$ and accepted for $\alpha < \hat{\alpha}$

Example: (following) $Z \sim \mathcal{U}(\theta, 1)$; $H_0: \theta = 0$; $H_1: \theta = ?$

$$\mathcal{R} = \{Z \in \mathbb{R} : Z > 2_{1-\alpha}\}$$

therefore, if we observe z , H_0 will be rejected for all α st $z > 2_{1-\alpha}$

and accepted for α st $z \leq 2_{1-\alpha}$

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the critical function φ of a test H_0 against H_1 is a measurable function of Z in
such a way that the power function is given by:

$$p_q(\omega) = \mathbb{E}_\theta[\psi(z)] = \mathbb{P}_\theta(\psi(z)=1) = \mathbb{P}_\theta(z \in \mathcal{D}_q)$$

In this section, we restrict our framework to tests of level $\alpha \in (0, 1]$: i.e.

$$\beta_q(\omega) \leq \alpha$$

We will try to find (when possible) the UMP test φ^* of level α w:

$$\sup_{\alpha \in \mathcal{A}_0} \beta_{\varphi^*}(\alpha) \leq \alpha$$

and $\forall \psi$ st $\sup_{\theta \in \Theta_0} \beta_{\psi}(\theta) \leq \alpha$, $\forall \theta \in \Theta_1$ $\beta_{\psi^*}(\theta) \geq \beta_{\psi}(\theta)$

To be able to construct spherical tests, we will need to make an hypothesis:

the 1st type risk $\bar{\alpha}(\varphi)$ has to be equal to α

$$(\overline{\alpha}(\varphi) = \sup_{\theta \in \mathcal{Q}} \beta_{\varphi}(\theta))$$

We will see that this may not be possible, in particular when dealing with discrete random variable. This requires to introduce a more general family of tests: the randomised testings.

Principle: Let $\varphi: \mathbb{Z} \rightarrow \mathbb{C}$ a measurable function

Given an observation $Z \in \mathcal{Z}$, we sample a Bernoulli r.v. y of parameter $\psi(Z)$.

The null hypothesis H_0 is chosen if the sample is \emptyset otherwise H_1 is chosen

Because of the introduction of this Bernoulli r.v. the decision is random and this leads to what is called randomised testings.

Now the test is not binary ($\varphi=0$ or 1) but we have 3 cases:

- $Z_1 = \{z \in Z : \varphi(z) = 1\}$: Reject H_0
- $Z_0 = \{z \in Z : \varphi(z) = 0\}$: Accept H_0
- $Z_p = \{z \in Z : \varphi(z) \in]0, 1[\}$: the decision depends on the sample (and not only on the observations) $\mathcal{B}(\varphi(Z))$

Now that we have defined a randomised testing, one can define as before for pure tests the power function.

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Theorem: $\forall \alpha \in (0,1], \exists C_\alpha > 0$ and $\gamma_\alpha \in [0,1]$ st

$$\varphi^*(z) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } r(z) > C_\alpha \\ \gamma_\alpha & \text{if } r(z) = C_\alpha \\ 0 & \text{if } r(z) < C_\alpha \end{cases}$$

where $r(z) = \frac{p_1(z)}{p_0(z)}$ and we test $H_0: \theta = \theta_0$ and $H_1: \theta = \theta_1$

with $P_{\theta=\theta_0} = P_0$ and $P_{\theta=\theta_1} = P_1$

And φ^* satisfies $E_{\theta=\theta_0}[\varphi^*(Z)] = \int \varphi^*(z) p_0(z) dz = \alpha$

the test associated with the critical function φ^* is UMP of level α and

its power is $\geq \alpha$: $E_{\theta=\theta_1}[\varphi^*(Z)] = \int \varphi^*(z) p_1(z) dz \geq \alpha$

Moreover, if φ^{**} is UMP(α) for almost every $z \in \mathbb{Z}$

$$\varphi^{**}(z) = \begin{cases} 1 & \text{if } r(z) > C_\alpha \\ 0 & \text{if } r(z) < C_\alpha \end{cases}$$

Remark: if $P_{\theta=\theta_0}(r(Z) = c) = 0 \quad \forall c \geq 0$, one can choose $\gamma = 0$ and come back to pure test.

Example: let $p_i(z) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}\sigma_i} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma_i^2}(z-\mu_i)^2\right)$ for $i=1$ and $i=0$.

$$r(z) = \frac{\sigma_0}{\sigma_1} \exp\left(-\frac{1}{2\sigma_1^2}(z-\mu_1)^2 + \frac{1}{2\sigma_0^2}(z-\mu_0)^2\right)$$

the critical region is given by: $z \in \mathbb{Z}$ st.

$$-\frac{1}{2\sigma_1^2}(z-\mu_1)^2 + \frac{1}{2\sigma_0^2}(z-\mu_0)^2 \geq \log C_\alpha + \frac{1}{2} \log \frac{\sigma_1^2}{\sigma_0^2}$$

Plot the log likelihood ratio for $(\mu_0, \sigma_0^2) = (-1, 1)$ and $(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2) = (1, 0.5)$

and $(\mu_0, \sigma_0^2) = (-1, 1)$ and $(\mu_1, \sigma_1^2) = (1, 1)$

En exercice proposer l'exemple 5.8 p 106 d'Eric
— 5.9 p 107 —
— 5.10 p 107 —

In the case of composite hypothesis the issue of constructing a UMP(α) test is more complex and requires to restrict oneself to exponential families.

Voir si on développe la suite...

En particulier quid des tests de séparation?



