

## Testing Hypotheses

This is the problem of choosing between two theories, two models or two hypotheses.

(1)  $H_0$  or the Null Hypothesis: This is the established hypothesis saying that the standard model is true or correct. If we are testing a new treatment against the current standard,  $H_0$  denotes no difference between them.

**Example.** In a quality control setup, suppose that the procedure in use produces 2% defectives on average. Then new quality control measures are brought in and there is a claim of reduction in the proportion ( $p$ ) of defectives. Then, we have

$$H_0 : p = 0.02 \text{ i.e., no change has occurred.}$$

This effectively means that any observed changes can be explained as due to purely chance variations, and a new model is not needed.

(2) The hypothesis to be tested against  $H_0$  is called  $H_1$  or the Alternative Hypothesis.

In the example above,

$$H_1 : p < 0.02 \text{ i.e., a positive change has occurred.}$$

This effectively means that the observed changes cannot be explained as due to chance variations under  $H_0$  and a new model is needed.

**Question.** Is there enough evidence in the data to reject  $H_0$  in favour of  $H_1$ ?

We proceed as follows by considering the consequences of actions in a test procedure under the different possible states of nature.

		decision	
		accept $H_0$	reject $H_0$
$H_0$ is true	✓	type I error	
$H_1$ is true	type II error	✓	

Decisions (or actions, accept or reject  $H_0$ ) are made using evidence from random samples or data. Therefore, we can only compute the probabilities of errors, and not know when they are committed. As shown above, *Type I Error* is the incorrect rejection of  $H_0$ , and  $P(\text{Type I Error}) = \alpha = \text{level of significance.}$

*Type II Error* is the incorrect acceptance of  $H_0$ , and  $P(\text{Type II Error}) = \beta$ ;  $1 - \beta = \text{power of test}$ .

Our approach is to fix  $\alpha$  (at say, 0.05 or 0.01) and minimize  $\beta$  (or maximize the power,  $1 - \beta$ ) to get the “most powerful” tests.

Let us consider some examples to intuitively see

- how to derive test statistics;
- how to derive test criteria.

**Example.** A pack of a certain brand of cigarettes displays the statement, “1.5 mg nicotine on average per cigarette”. Let  $\mu$  denote the actual average nicotine content per cigarette for all cigarettes of this brand. It is required to test if the actual average is higher than what is claimed. Suppose a sample of cigarettes is selected, and the nicotine content of each cigarette is determined. The observed contents are  $X_1, \dots, X_n$ . Conduct the test at the level of significance of 5%. We assume that  $X_i$  are distributed as i.i.d  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ . Then, we desire to test

$$H_0 : \mu = 1.5 = \mu_0 \text{ versus } H_1 : \mu > 1.5 \text{ i.e., average is higher.}$$

How to we calculate evidence? Estimate  $\mu$  from data.  $\hat{\mu} = \bar{X}$ . Compare  $\hat{\mu}$  with  $\mu_0$ . When do we say that  $H_0$  is not true?

$\bar{X} - \mu_0$  = observed difference between estimated mean and the hypothesized value.

However,  $\bar{X}$  has variation from sample to sample. The expected variation in  $\bar{X}$  values is s.e.( $\bar{X}$ ) =  $\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$ .

Now compare the observed difference with the expected, and enquire: Is

$$\frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{s/\sqrt{n}} >> 1?$$

i.e., is the observed difference much larger than the expected difference?

If so, reject  $H_0$ . If

$$\frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{s/\sqrt{n}} \sim 1 \text{ or } < 1$$

there is no evidence to reject  $H_0$ . Thus, we have the statistic for testing:

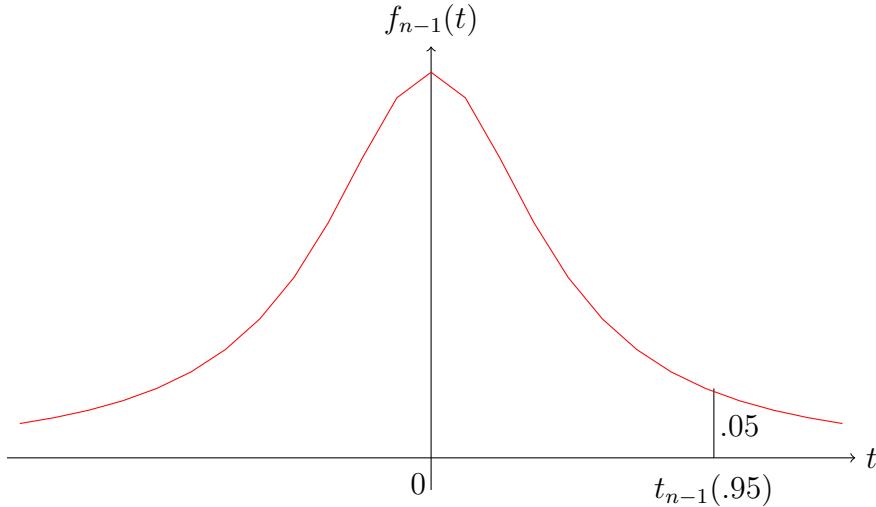
$$\text{Test statistic} = \frac{\text{observed departure from } H_0}{\text{expected departure}}.$$

In the present problem, the test statistic is

$$T = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{s/\sqrt{n}} \sim t_{n-1} \text{ if } H_0 \text{ is true.}$$

Reject  $H_0$  if the observed value of the test statistic is large. But, how large?

$$\begin{aligned} 0.05 &= \alpha = P(\text{Type I Error}) = P(\text{Reject } H_0 \text{ when } H_0 \text{ is true}) \\ &= P\left(\frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{s/\sqrt{n}} > C\right) = P(t_{n-1} > C). \end{aligned}$$



Therefore,  $C = t_{n-1}(1 - \alpha) = t_{n-1}(.95)$  and,  
we claim to have evidence against the null hypothesis at the 5% level of  
significance  
if the observed value of  $\frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{s/\sqrt{n}} > t_{n-1}(.95)$ .

**Example.**  $X \sim \text{Binomial}(n, p)$  and it is of interest to test

$$H_0 : p = p_0 \text{ versus } H_1 : p \neq p_0 \text{ a two-sided alternative.}$$

$\hat{p} = \frac{X}{n}$  and it would be natural to use the statistic:

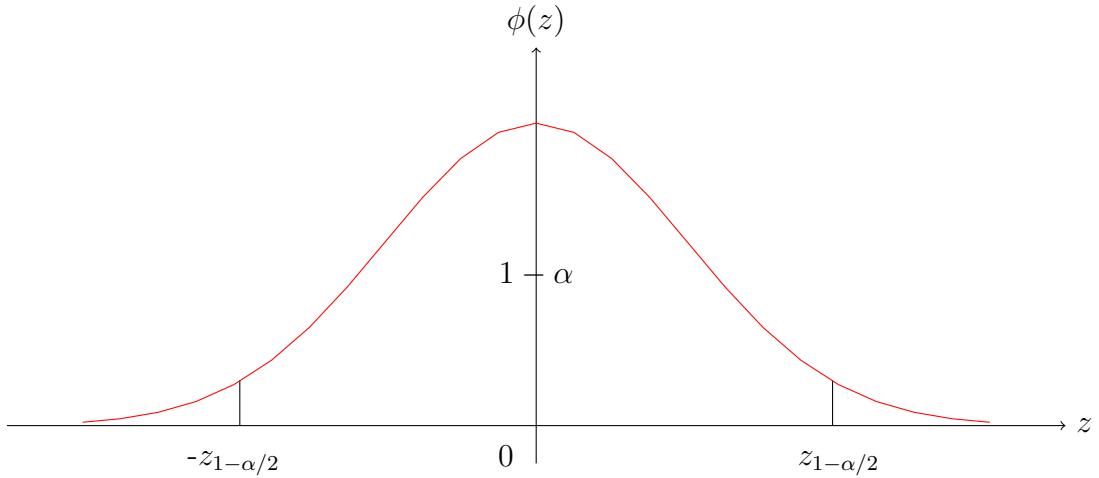
$$\frac{\text{estimated departure from } H_0}{\text{expected departure or s.e.}} = \frac{\hat{p} - p_0}{\sqrt{p_0(1-p_0)/n}} \sim N(0, 1),$$

approximately for large  $n$ , if  $H_0$  is true. Since the alternative hypothesis  
is two-sided, the test statistic is  $\left| \frac{\hat{p} - p_0}{\sqrt{p_0(1-p_0)/n}} \right|$ , large values of which provide

evidence against  $H_0$  and in favour of  $H_1$ . To obtain the critical value (above which  $H_0$  is to be rejected), note

$$\alpha = P_{H_0} \left( \left| \frac{\hat{p} - p_0}{\sqrt{p_0(1-p_0)/n}} \right| > C \right) = P(|Z| > C),$$

implying that  $C = z_{1-\alpha/2}$ .



At the significance level of  $\alpha$ , evidence to reject  $H_0$  exists if  $\left| \frac{\hat{p} - p_0}{\sqrt{p_0(1-p_0)/n}} \right| > z_{1-\alpha/2}$ .

How does one derive ‘most powerful’ tests?

**Power of a test.** As noted previously, power of a test is  $P_{H_0}$ ( reject  $H_0$  ). Suppose  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  are i.i.d  $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$  where  $\sigma^2$  is known and we desire to test

$$H_0 : \mu = \mu_0 \text{ versus } H_1 : \mu > \mu_0$$

at the level of significance  $\alpha$ . We use the test statistic

$$Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \sim N(0, 1) \text{ if } H_0 \text{ is true.}$$

Reject  $H_0$  if the observed value of  $Z > z_{1-\alpha}$  since

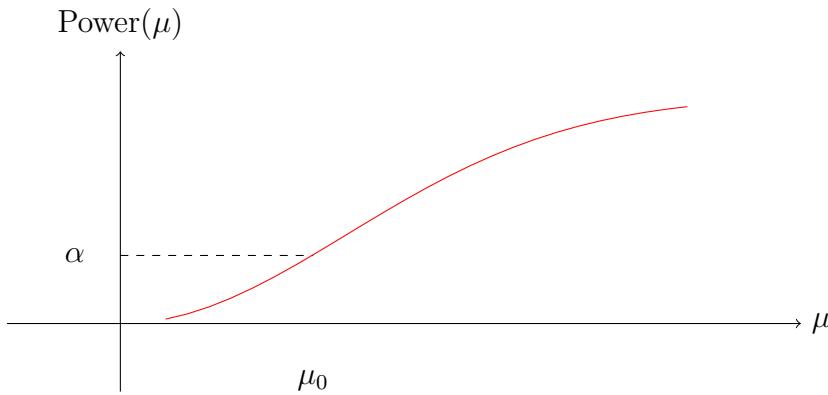
$$\alpha = P_{\mu=\mu_0} \left( \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} > z_{1-\alpha} \right).$$

To compute the power of this test at any  $\mu > \mu_0$  (under  $H_1$ ), we have,

$$\begin{aligned}\text{Power}(\mu) &= P_\mu \left( \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} > z_{1-\alpha} \right) = P_\mu \left( \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} + \frac{\mu - \mu_0}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} > z_{1-\alpha} \right) \\ &= P_\mu \left( \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} > z_{1-\alpha} - \frac{\mu - \mu_0}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \right) = P \left( Z > z_{1-\alpha} - \frac{\mu - \mu_0}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \right),\end{aligned}$$

which is an increasing function of  $\mu$ . i.e., if  $\mu$  is much larger than  $\mu_0$ , the test rejects  $H_0$  easily.

$\text{Power}(\mu)$  as a function of  $\mu$  is called the power curve.



**P-values.** The error probabilities of a test (significance level  $\alpha$  and the power  $1 - \beta$  which are predetermined) do not provide a measure of the strength of evidence in a particular data set against  $H_0$ . The P-values defined below try to capture that.

Suppose  $H_0 : \theta = \theta_0$  and your test is to reject  $H_0$  for large values of a test statistic  $W = W(\mathbf{X})$ . Then, when  $\mathbf{X} = \mathbf{x}$  is observed, the P-value is defined as

$$p(\mathbf{x}) = P_{\theta_0} (W > W(\mathbf{x})),$$

Any data point  $\mathbf{x}$  for which  $p(\mathbf{x}) \leq \alpha$  may be considered strong enough evidence to reject  $H_0$  at the significance level of  $\alpha$ .

**Example.** Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_9$  be i.i.d  $N(\mu, 1)$ . It is of interest to test  $H_0 : \mu = 0$  versus  $H_1 : \mu \neq 0$ . Compute P-value for the  $Z$ -test if  $\bar{x} = 0.9$  is observed. The  $Z$ -test rejects  $H_0$  when

$$|Z| = \left| \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \right| = 3|\bar{X}|$$

is large.  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$  when  $H_0$  is true. Therefore the P-value when  $\mathbf{x}$  is observed is  $p(\mathbf{x}) = P(|Z| > 3\bar{x})$ . If  $\bar{x} = 0.9$ , then the P-value is  $2[1 - \Phi(2.7)] = 0.007$ .

How do we know that these are the ‘best’ tests available to us? Let us discuss the Neyman-Pearson theory of deriving optimal tests for this.