Hypothesis Testing Cont'd

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More Testing

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Some terminology



- We saw that testing was based on a test statistic T. Coupled with the test statistic (as we saw) is a critical region, usually written as C.
- A hypothesis of the form $\theta = \theta_0$ is a simple hypothesis.
- A hypothesis of the form $\theta < \theta_0$ is a composite hypothesis.
- A test of the form

$$H_0: \quad \theta = \theta_0 \quad \text{vs} \quad \theta \neq \theta_0,$$

is a two-sided test.

A test of the form

$$H_0: \quad \theta \leq \theta_0 \quad \text{vs} \quad \theta > \theta_0,$$

is an example of a one-sided test.

Some terminology



- Example: assume σ_0^2 is known. Assume $X_1, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma_0^2)$.
- Assume we want to test

$$H_0: \quad \theta \leq 0 \quad \mathrm{vs} \quad \theta > 0.$$

The critical region is then

$$C = \{(x_1, \ldots, x_n) : T(\mathbf{x}) > c\}.$$

• We let Z denote a standard ($\mu=0$ and $\sigma=1$) normal random variable. The power is then

$$\beta(\mu) = \Pr_{\mu} \{ \bar{X} > c \}$$

$$= \Pr_{\mu} \{ \frac{\sqrt{n} \{ \bar{X} - \mu \}}{\sigma} > \frac{\sqrt{n} \{ c - \mu \}}{\sigma} \}$$

$$= \Pr_{\mu} \{ Z > \frac{\sqrt{n} \{ c - \mu \}}{\sigma} \} = 1 - \Phi \left(\frac{\sqrt{n} \{ c - \mu \}}{\sigma} \right). \tag{1}$$

This function increases with μ .

More testing



ullet In general the power function of a test with region R is defined as

$$\beta(\theta) = \Pr_{\theta} \{ T \in C | \theta \}.$$

The <u>size</u> of the test is defined as

$$\alpha = \sup_{\theta \in \Theta_0} \beta(\theta).$$

Thus the size in this example is

$$\alpha = \sup_{\mu \le 0} \beta(\mu) = \beta(0) = 1 - \Phi\left(\frac{\sqrt{n\{c\}}}{\sigma}\right). \tag{2}$$

We reject the null when

$$\bar{X} > \frac{\sigma\Phi^{-1}(1-\alpha)}{\sqrt{n}}.$$

We therefore reject when $\frac{\sqrt{n}X}{\sigma}>z_{\alpha},$ for $z_{\alpha}=\Phi^{-1}(1-\alpha)$ the α 'th Gaussian quantile.

More testing



- Let us provide some details of the tests we have discussed.
- ullet For this section let heta be a scalar parameter and let $\widehat{ heta}$ be its estimator.
- Let \widehat{se} be the estimated standard deviation of $\widehat{\theta}$.
- Definition: The Wald Test. Consider testing

$$H_0: \theta = \theta_0 \quad \mathrm{vs} \quad H_1: \theta \neq \theta_0.$$

 \bullet Assume that $\widehat{\theta}$ is asymptotically normal (as we have shown for MLEs), and that

$$rac{\widehat{ heta}- heta_0}{\widehat{ ext{se}}}\stackrel{\mathcal{L}}{
ightarrow} extsf{N}(0,1).$$

• To get a size α Wald test we reject H_0 when $|W|>z_{1-\alpha/2}$, where z_{γ} is the γ th Gaussian percentile. Here

$$W = \frac{\widehat{\theta} - \theta_0}{\widehat{se}}.$$

More testing



ullet Theorem: asymptotically the Wald test has size α , that is

$$\Pr_{\theta_0}\{|W|>z_{1-\alpha/2}\}\to \alpha\quad n\to\infty.$$

• A version of the Wald test is the signed Wald test. This test statistic is based on an adjustment of W and uses \sec_0 the value of the standard error at θ_0 . We take

$$W' = \frac{\widehat{\theta} - \theta_0}{\mathrm{se}_0}.$$

• Theorem: suppose that the true value of θ is $\theta_* \neq \theta_0$. The power $\beta(\theta_*)$, based on W is approximately

$$1 - \Phi(\frac{\theta_0 - \theta_*}{\text{se}_0} + z_{1-\alpha/2}) + \Phi(\frac{\theta_0 - \theta_*}{\text{se}_0} - z_{1-\alpha/2}).$$

When H₀ is rejected then we say that the test is statistically significant. It
does not say something about the scientific significance of the result or the
size of the effect.

More *p*–values



- Returning to p-values. The p-value is the probability of observing a value of the test statistic as extreme or more extreme than the one obtained.
- Let W be the observed value of the Wald statistic. The absolute test statistic then gives

$$p = \Pr_{\theta}\{|W| > |w|\}$$

$$\approx \Pr\{|Z| > |w|\}$$

$$= 2\Phi(-|w|). \tag{3}$$

here $Z \sim N(0, 1)$.

• Theorem: If the test statistic has a continuous distribution then under $H_0: \theta=\theta_0$ the p-value has a Uniform(0,1) distribution. Therefore if we reject H_0 when the p-value is less than α , the probability of a type I error (incoreectly rejecting the null) if α .

More *p*-values & Testing



- Or when H_0 is true, the p-value is like a random variable drawn from a U(0,1) distribution.
- On the other hand when H_1 is true, the distribution of the p-value would tend to concentrate closer to 0.
- Example: 371 patients with chest pain are measured in terms of their plasma cholesterol (in mg/dl).
- We wish to compare the mean cholesterol in 51 patients with no evidence of heart disease to the 320 patients who had narrowing of the arteries. We shall assume

$$X_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_1, \sigma^2), \quad i = 1, \dots, 51$$
 (4)

$$X_i \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_2, \sigma^2), \quad i = 52, \dots, 371.$$
 (5)

• We start by estimating the means $\widehat{\mu}_1 = 195.27$ and $\widehat{\mu}_2 = 216.19$.

More *p*–values & Testing



Here the natural hypotheses are

$$H_0: \quad \mu_1 = \mu_2 \quad H_1: \quad \mu_1 \neq \mu_2,$$

but it would also be possible to compute a two-sided version.

We are also provided with

$$\widehat{\text{se}}\{\widehat{\mu}_1\} = 5.0 \quad \widehat{\text{se}}\{\widehat{\mu}_2\} = 2.4.$$

- We now define the theoretical quantity $\delta = \mu_1 \mu_2$.
- We can compute the sample version of this:

$$\widehat{\delta} = \widehat{\mu}_1 - \widehat{\mu}_2 = 5.0 - 2.4 = 216.19 - 195.27 = 20.92$$

Assuming independence of estimators (reasonable) we then get

$$\mathbb{V}\operatorname{ar}\{\widehat{\delta}\} = \mathbb{V}\operatorname{ar}\{\widehat{\mu}_1\} + \mathbb{V}\operatorname{ar}\{\widehat{\mu}_2\}.$$

Thus

$$\widehat{se}^{2}\{\widehat{\delta}\} = \widehat{se}^{2}\{\widehat{\mu}_{1}\} + \widehat{se}^{2}\{\widehat{\mu}_{2}\} = 5.55^{2}.$$

More *p*–values & Testing



Thus it follows that

$$W = \frac{\hat{\delta} - 0}{\widehat{\text{se}}\{\hat{\delta}\}} = \frac{20.92}{5.55} = 3.78.$$

Therefore we get

$$p - \text{value} = \Pr\{|Z| > 3.78\} = 2 \Pr\{Z < -3.78\} = 0.0002.$$

This gives a strong evidence against the null.

Multiple Testing



- It is often the case that we want to implement more than one hypothesis test.
- ullet For one test the chance of a false rejection is lpha.
- However when implementing many tests the chance of at least one rejection is much higher.
- In data mining one may end up testing thousands or millions of hypotheses.
- Consider *m* hypothesis tests

$$H_{0i}$$
 vs H_{1i} $i = 1, ..., m$.

- Let p_1, \ldots, p_m denote the m p-values of these tests.
- How do we make these tests simultaneously?

Multiple Testing II



- The Bonferroni Method: Given p-values p_1, \ldots, p_m reject H_{0i} if $p_i < \alpha/m$.
- Theorem: Using the Bonferroni method, the probability of falsely rejecting any null hypothesis is less than or equal to α .
- <u>Proof</u>: Let R be the event that at least one null hypothesis is falsely rejected. Let R_i be the event that the ith null hypothesis is falsely rejected.
- Recall that if A_1, \ldots, A_k are events then

$$\Pr\{\cap_{i=1}^k A_i\} \le \sum_{i=1}^k \Pr\{A_i\}.$$
 (6)

From this we conclude

$$\Pr\{R\} = \Pr\{\bigcap_{i=1}^{m} R_i \} \le \sum_{i=1}^{m} \Pr\{R_i\} = \sum_{i=1}^{m} \frac{\alpha}{m} = \alpha.$$
 (7)



Multiple Testing III



- The Bonferroni method is very conservative because it is trying to make it unlikely to even have one false rejection.
- Sometimes a more reasonable idea is to control the False Discovery Rate (FDR); this is defined as the mean number of false discoveries divided by the number of rejections.

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Multiple Testing IV



• Define the False Discovery Proportion (FDP):

$$FDP = \begin{cases} V/R & \text{if} \quad R > 0\\ 0 & \text{o/w} \end{cases}$$

- The Benjamini–Hochberg Method:
- 1 Let $p_{(1)} \leq p_{(2)} \leq \cdots \leq p_{(m)}$.
- 2 Define $\ell_i = i\alpha/(C_m m)$, where C_k is 1 if the events are independent and $C_k = \sum_{i=1}^k 1/i$ o/w.
- 3 Let $T = p_{(R)}$; we call T the BH rejection threshold.
- 4 reject all the null hypothesis H_{0i} for which $p_i < T$.

Multiple Testing V



• Theorem: Benjamini–Hochberg Method: if the above procedure is applied then regardless of how many nulls are true and regardless of the distribution of the *p*–values when the null is false

$$FDR = \mathbb{E}\{FDP\} \le \frac{m_0\alpha}{m} \le \alpha.$$

 Example: suppose that 10 independent hypothesis tests are carried out, leading to the ordered p-values

 $0.00017,\ 0.00448,\ 0.00671,\ 0.00907,\ 0.01220,\ 0.33626,\ 0.39341,\ 0.53882,\ 0.58125,\ 0.98617.$

with $\alpha=0.05$. For Bonferroni the test rejects any hypothesis whose p-value is less than $\alpha/10=0.005$.

Multiple Testing VI



- Holm's procedure. Again order the p-values according to $p_{(1)} \le p_{(2)} \le \cdots \le p_{(m)}$ from most to least significance.
- Starting from t=1 and going up, reject all $H_{0,(t)}$ such that $p_{(t)}$ is significant at level $\alpha/(T-t+1)$. Stop rejecting at first insignificant $p_{(t)}$.
- Genuine improvement over Bonferroni if want to detect as many signals as possible, not just existence of some signal.
- Both Holm and Bonferroni reject the global H₀ if and only if inf_t p_t significant at level α/T.

Non-Parametric Statistics



- Can we estimate the distribution F itself from the data $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} F$ without assuming a parametric form?
- ullet Termed nonparametric estimation as there is no specific parameter heta.
- Otherwise said, $\{F(x): x \in \mathbb{R}\}$ is itself an infinite-dimensional parameter.
- Definition: (Empirical Distribution Function). For a real i.i.d sample $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} F$ the empirical distribution function is a random cumulative distribution function defined as

$$\widehat{F}_n(y) = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^n \mathrm{I}(Y_i \leq y).$$

• CDF of the mass function placing mass 1/n on location of each Y_i .

Non-Parametric Statistics II

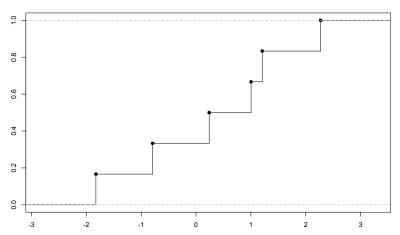


- Notice that $W_i(y) \equiv I(Y_i \leq y) \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \text{Bernoulli}(F(y))$.
- Thus by the law of large numbers $\widehat{F}_n(y) \stackrel{p}{\to} F(y)$.
- Notice how we got consistency without any assumption on form of F.



Non-Parametric Statistics III

Empirical distribution of $Y_1,\ldots,\,Y_n\stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathrm{N}(0,1),\,n=6$



• Jump locations at Y_1, \ldots, Y_n .





Empirical distribution of $Y_1, \ldots, Y_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(0,1)$ for n = 10, 50, 100, 500.

