

# Hypothesis testing and decision rules

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Loose ends

One more  
example of  
Bayesian  
estimation

Hypothesis  
Testing

Summary

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- On lecture slides earlier in the semester, I used a definition of  $z_\alpha$  that differs from that in the book. Let me call it  $z'_\alpha$ ,

$$\alpha = \int_{-\infty}^{z'_\alpha} dx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2}\right).$$

- The actual definition of  $z_\alpha$  used by the book is, in fact,

$$\alpha = \int_{z_\alpha}^{+\infty} dx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2}\right).$$

- Note that  $z_\alpha = z'_{1-\alpha} = -z'_\alpha$  since

$$1 - \alpha = \int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} dx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2}\right) - \int_{z_\alpha}^{+\infty} dx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2}\right) = \int_{-\infty}^{z_\alpha} dx \frac{1}{\sqrt{2\pi}} \exp\left(-\frac{x^2}{2}\right)$$

- No credit was lost for mixing this up on homework
- I am slowly correcting the slides. We will use the book's definition henceforth.

- For a sequence  $\vec{Y}$  of  $n$  random variables
- Use  $\hat{\sigma}_n^2(\vec{Y})$  to denote the MLE estimator for the variance of the normal.
- Recall  $\hat{\sigma}_n^2(\vec{Y})$  is *not unbiased* since

$$E\left(\hat{\sigma}_n^2\right) = E\left[\frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n (Y_j - \bar{Y})^2\right] = \frac{n-1}{n} \sigma^2 \neq \sigma^2$$

- but it is *asymptotically unbiased* since  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E\left(\hat{\sigma}_n^2\right) = \sigma^2$
- More generally, if  $\hat{x}_n$  is a sequence of estimators for parameter  $x$ 
  - If  $E(\hat{x}_n) = x$  for all  $n$ , then  $\hat{x}_n$  is unbiased.
  - If  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(\hat{x}_n) = x$ , then  $\hat{x}_n$  is asymptotically unbiased.

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- Consistency is a stronger condition
- For consistency, it is not enough that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(\hat{x}_n) = x$
- For consistency, we demand that  $\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \hat{x}_n = x$
- This means that not only must the mean of the estimator approach  $x$ , but the variance of the estimator must approach zero.
- Consistency implies asymptotic unbiasedness, but the reverse is not true.

- For  $y \in \mathbb{R}$ , you can show that this pdf has mean  $\mu$  and unit variance

$$p_Y(y; \mu) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} e^{-\sqrt{2}|y-\mu|}$$

- Now consider a sequence of random variables  $\vec{Y}$  where  $Y_n$  is sampled from  $p(y; x + \frac{1}{n})$
- For random variables  $\vec{Y}$  generated in this way, can we find an estimator for  $x$ ?
- Consider the estimator for  $x$ ,

$$\hat{x}_n(\vec{Y}) = Y_n$$

- Note that  $E(\hat{x}_n) = E(Y_n) = x + \frac{1}{n}$ , so this is not unbiased, but it is asymptotically unbiased since

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} E(\hat{x}_n) = \lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} \left( x + \frac{1}{n} \right) = x.$$

- We are considering a sequence of random variables  $\vec{Y}$  where  $Y_n$  is sampled from  $p(y; x + \frac{1}{n})$ , where in turn  $p_Y(y; \mu) = \frac{1}{\sqrt{2}} e^{-\sqrt{2}|y-\mu|}$ .
- We have shown the estimator for  $x$  given by  $\hat{x}_n(\vec{Y}) = Y_n$  is *asymptotically unbiased*. But is it *consistent*?
- With elementary integration and a bit of work, you can show

$$P(|\hat{x}_n - x| < \epsilon) = \int_{x-\epsilon}^{x+\epsilon} dy p_Y(y; \mu) = \begin{cases} 1 - e^{-\sqrt{2}\epsilon} \cosh(\sqrt{2}/n) & \text{if } n\epsilon > 1 \\ e^{-\sqrt{2}/n} \sinh(\sqrt{2}\epsilon) & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Fixing  $\epsilon > 0$ , however small, and letting  $n \rightarrow \infty$ , we find

$$\lim_{n \rightarrow \infty} P(|\hat{x}_n - x| < \epsilon) = 1 - e^{-\sqrt{2}\epsilon} \neq 1,$$

so  $\hat{x}_n$  is *not consistent*, according to Definition 5.7.1 in the L&M text.

- Exponentially distributed random variable  $W$

$$f_W(w | \lambda) = \lambda e^{-\lambda w}$$

- Recall the mean is  $E(w) = 1/\lambda$
- Suppose also that your prior for  $\lambda$  is the uniform distribution on  $[a, b]$ ,

$$f_\Lambda(\lambda) = \begin{cases} \frac{1}{b-a} & \text{if } a \leq \lambda \leq b \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

- Suppose that you sample  $W$  and find a value  $w_s$ .



# Example of Bayesian estimation (continued)

- Suppose that you sample  $W$  and find a value  $w_s$ .
- The posterior distribution of  $\lambda$  is

$$\begin{aligned}
 g_{\lambda}(\lambda | W = w_s) &= \frac{f_W(w_s | \lambda) f_{\lambda}(\lambda)}{\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} d\xi f_W(w_s | \xi) f_{\lambda}(\xi)} \\
 &= \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda e^{-\lambda w_s} \frac{1}{b-a}}{\int_a^b d\xi \xi e^{-\xi w_s} \frac{1}{b-a}} & \text{if } a \leq \lambda \leq b \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\
 &= \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda w_s^2 e^{-\lambda w_s}}{(1+aw_s)e^{-aw_s} - (1+bw_s)e^{-bw_s}} & \text{if } a \leq \lambda \leq b \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}
 \end{aligned}$$

- What does this posterior distribution look like for various samples  $w_s$ ?

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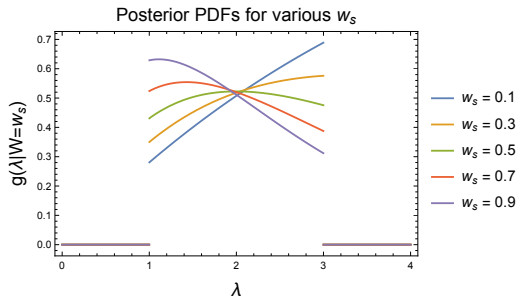
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# Example of Bayesian estimation (continued)

- Suppose your prior for  $f_{\Lambda}(\lambda)$  has  $a = 1$  and  $b = 3$
- The posterior distribution of  $\lambda$  is

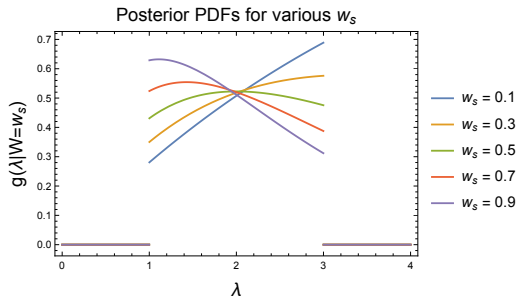
$$g_{\Lambda}(\lambda | W = w_s) = \begin{cases} \frac{\lambda w_s^2 e^{-\lambda w_s}}{(1+aw_s)e^{-aw_s} - (1+bw_s)e^{-bw_s}} & \text{if } a \leq \lambda \leq b \\ 0 & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$



# A potential drawback of Bayesian estimation

- There is no way that the posterior  $g_{\lambda}(\lambda | W = w_s)$  can be nonzero anywhere outside of the region  $[a, b]$ , where the prior  $f_{\lambda}(\lambda)$  was nonzero.
- It is clear that this is generally true from the equation

$$g_{\lambda}(\lambda | W = w_s) = \frac{f_W(w_s | \lambda) f_{\lambda}(\lambda)}{\int_{-\infty}^{+\infty} d\xi f_W(w_s | \xi) f_{\lambda}(\xi)}$$



- Imagine a *yes/no question* about random data.
  - Deciding whether or not a person on trial *is or is not* guilty
  - Testing mileage on cars to decide if a fuel additive *is or is not* effective
- In both examples, there is a *null hypothesis*  $H_0$ : This is the thing you would suppose to be true by default – in the absence of evidence to the contrary.
  - In a trial, the null hypothesis in the U.S. is “innocent until proven guilty”
  - In a fuel additive test, the null hypothesis is that the additive is ineffective.
- There is also an *alternative hypothesis*  $H_1$ : This might be the thing you are trying to use evidence to prove is true.
  - In a trial, the alternative hypothesis might be that the defendant is guilty.
  - In fuel additive test, alternative hypothesis is that additive is proven effective.

# The fuel additive problem

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- We have a fleet of  $n$  cars whose mileage is  $\bar{y} = 25$  mpg.
- In test with the additive, we found mileages  $y_1, \dots, y_n$ , with *sample mean*

$$\bar{y} = \frac{1}{n} \sum_{j=1}^n y_j = 26.3 \text{ mpg}$$

- Sample mean is *normally distributed* with *known variance* of  $\sigma = 2.4$  mpg.
- The competing hypotheses are
  - $H_0: \mu = 25.0$  so the additive is ineffective
  - $H_1: \mu > 25.0$  so the additive is effective
- Note  $\bar{y} < 25.0$  is certainly not grounds to reject  $H_0$ .
- Even values of  $\bar{y}$  slightly greater than 25.0 might not contradict  $H_0$ .
- The question is “How large must  $\bar{y}$  be before we stop believing  $H_0$ ?”

# The fuel additive problem (continued)

- How large must  $\bar{y}$  be before we stop believing  $H_0$ ?
- There is no right answer to this question.
- It depends how much confidence you want in your answer.
- Suppose we want 95% confidence. Then we seek  $y^*$  such that we can reject  $H_0$  whenever  $\bar{y} > y^*$ , and have 95% confidence that our judgement is correct.

$$P(\text{We reject } H_0 \mid H_0 \text{ is true}) = 0.05$$

$$\therefore P(\bar{y} > y^* \mid \mu = 25.0) = 0.05$$

$$\therefore P(\bar{y} > y^* \mid \mu = 25.0) = 0.05$$

$$\therefore P\left(\frac{\bar{y} - \mu}{2.4/\sqrt{30}} > \frac{y^* - \mu}{2.4/\sqrt{30}} \mid \mu = 25.0\right) = 0.05$$

$$\therefore P\left(Z > \frac{y^* - \mu}{2.4/\sqrt{30}}\right) = 0.05$$

# The fuel additive problem (continued)

- We can have the desired confidence if

$$P\left(Z > \frac{y^* - \mu}{2.4/\sqrt{30}}\right) = 0.05$$

$$\therefore \frac{y^* - 25.0}{2.4/\sqrt{30}} = z_{0.05} = 1.64$$

$$\therefore y^* = 25.0 + 1.64 \frac{2.4}{\sqrt{30}} = 25.7186$$

- So we should reject the null hypothesis if  $\bar{y} > 25.7186$ .

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- Suppose we wish to test  $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$ .
- This might have been  $\mu_0 = 25$  in the previous example.
- We wish to have 95% confidence that we are right, so  $\alpha = 0.05$ .
- Suppose we accept  $H_0$  if  $\mu - \Delta y \leq \bar{y} \leq \mu + \Delta y$ , and reject otherwise.
- Demand

$$P(\text{We reject } H_0 \mid H_0 \text{ is true}) = \alpha$$

$$\therefore P(\bar{y} < \mu - \Delta y \mid \mu = \mu_0) + P(\bar{y} > \mu + \Delta y \mid \mu = \mu_0) = \alpha$$

$$\therefore P(\bar{y} > \mu + \Delta y \mid \mu = \mu_0) = \alpha/2$$

$$\therefore P\left(\frac{\bar{y} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} > \frac{\Delta y}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \mid \mu = \mu_0\right) = \alpha/2$$

- We know  $Z = \frac{\bar{y} - \mu}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$  is distributed as a standard normal, so  $\frac{\Delta y}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} = z_{\alpha/2}$ , or

$$\Delta y = z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$



# Summary of the above

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Summary

- Easier to state in terms of  $z := \frac{\bar{y} - \mu_0}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$
- Let  $y_1, \dots, y_n$  be a random sample from a normal distribution for which  $\sigma$  is known.
- To test  $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$  versus  $H_1 : \mu > \mu_0$  at the  $\alpha$  level of significance, reject  $H_0$  if  $z \geq z_\alpha$ .
- To test  $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$  versus  $H_1 : \mu < \mu_0$  at the  $\alpha$  level of significance, reject  $H_0$  if  $z \leq -z_\alpha$ .
- To test  $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$  versus  $H_1 : \mu \neq \mu_0$  at the  $\alpha$  level of significance, reject  $H_0$  if either  $z \leq -z_{\alpha/2}$  or  $z \geq +z_{\alpha/2}$ .

- All of the above tests are designed to accept or reject the null hypothesis.
- The above analysis worked because assuming the null hypothesis  $H_0$  means assuming that  $\mu = \mu_0$ . We could then subtract  $\mu_0$  across the inequality and divide by the variance to obtain a random variable distributed like a standard normal.
- We do not have a way to accept or reject the alternative hypothesis.
- If  $H_0$  is not rejected, it is better to characterize that as “failure to reject the null hypothesis,” rather than “accept the null hypothesis”.

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Summary

- We straightened out the definition of the  $z_n$ .
- We discussed the difference between asymptotic unbiasedness and consistency.
- We gave a concrete example of Bayesian parameter estimation.
- We discussed null and alternate hypotheses.
- We discussed hypothesis testing and decision rules.