

AFRE 802
**Statistical Methods for Agricultural, Food, &
Resource Economists**



Hypothesis Testing – Part 1 of 3
(WMS Ch. 10.1-10.3)

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GAME PLAN

- Collect Ch. 8 HW; return graded HW & exercises
- Review
- Hypothesis testing – Part 1 of 3
 - Motivation / intuition on hypothesis testing
 - Type I vs. Type II error
 - The steps in the hypothesis testing procedure
 - Examples (large sample hypothesis testing)

REVIEW

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3 important properties of estimators

1. **Unbiasedness:**
2. **Efficiency:**
3. **Consistency:**
 - An unbiased estimator is consistent if:
 - Note that consistency does NOT imply unbiasedness (but unbiasedness plus zero asymptotic variance does imply consistency)
 - **Unbiasedness is nice, but consistency is essential**

3 common methods of estimation

1. **Method of moments**
2. **Maximum likelihood**
3. **Least squares**

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REVIEW: Method of moments

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Method #1: The method of moments (MOM)

- The gist: replace population moments" (expected values) with their sample analogues
- *What would you propose as the MOM estimator of:*
 - $E(Y^2)$?
 - $V(Y) = E(Y^2) - [E(Y)]^2$
- **Pros:**
 - Easy & intuitive to use
 - Consistent
- **Cons:**
 - Often biased
 - Typically not very efficient

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REVIEW: Maximum likelihood estimation

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Method #2: Maximum likelihood estimation (MLE)

- The gist: Finding the value of $\hat{\theta}$ that **maximizes** the likelihood function (joint distribution)
 - In practice, maximize log likelihood function
- **Pros:**
 - Usually consistent, often unbiased
 - Often most (asymptotically) efficient estimator
- **Cons:**
 - No major cons

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REVIEW: Least squares

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Method #3: Least squares

- The gist: Finding the value of $\hat{\theta}$ that **minimizes** the sum of squared deviations between the observed values and the estimated values $\sum_{i=1}^N (Y_i - \hat{\mu})^2$

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HYPOTHESIS TESTING

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Hypothesis testing: Motivation

- The main **objective of statistics** is to **make inferences** about unknown population parameters based on information contained in sample data
- Previous 2 sections of the course: how to estimate population parameters from sample data, and some desirable properties of estimators
- **Statistical inference** = testing hypotheses about population parameters
- Once we have our estimate of a given population parameter, can test whether it is equal to zero or to some other value, including the values of other population parameters. *Examples from your work?*

Source: Wooldridge (2003: 724-725)

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Motivation (cont'd)

- Suppose that in a recent election Candidate A got 42% of the vote, and Candidate B got 58%
- Candidate A is convinced he got more than 42% of the vote, so hires a consultant to randomly sample 100 voters and record if they voted for A or B
 - 53 of them voted for candidate A
 - \rightarrow sample implies 53% voted for Candidate A, but official results were that 42% voted for Candidate A
 - *Enough to conclude that there was election fraud? How strong is the sample evidence against the official results?*
- Can set up a **hypothesis test** to determine this

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Source: Wooldridge (2003: 724-725)



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Motivation (cont'd)

- Let θ be the true proportion of the population that voted for Candidate A
- The hypothesis that the official results are accurate can be stated as **$H_0: \theta = 0.42$** (“**null hypothesis**”)
 - Null hypothesis is presumed to be true until the data strongly suggest otherwise (innocent until proven guilty)
- Candidate A believes he got more than 42% of the vote, so the “**alternative hypothesis**” of interest is **$H_1: \theta > 0.42$**
- In order to reject H_0 in favor of H_1 , we need to have evidence “beyond a reasonable doubt” against H_0
- *Is 53 out of 100 strong enough to reject H_0 ?*
 - Depends on how we quantify “beyond a reasonable doubt”

In hypothesis testing, we can make two kinds of mistakes:

Type I and Type II errors

		REALITY	
		NULL HYPOTHESIS	
		TRUE	FALSE
Conclusion of your hypothesis test/study: the null is...	TRUE		Type II error (β) 'False negative'
	FALSE	Type I error (α) 'False positive'	

- Type I error: reject H_0 when H_0 is true**

- In medical stats: "false positive"
- Probability: α (significance level)
- *In our candidate A example?*

Candidate A example:

$$H_0: \theta = 0.42$$

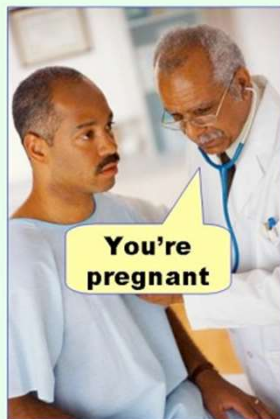
$$H_1: \theta > 0.42$$

- Type II error: fail to reject H_0 when H_0 is false**

- In medical stats: "false negative"
- Probability: β
- *In our candidate A example?*

Type I vs. Type II error

Type I error (false positive)



Reject H_0 when H_0 is true

Type II error (false negative)



Fail to reject H_0 when H_0 is false

What are H_0 and H_1 here?

Hypothesis testing rules are constructed to:

1. **Make the probability of Type I error fairly small**
 - α is the “significance level” (or simply “level”) of the test
 - Commonly set at 0.01, 0.05, or 0.10
 - *What does $\alpha=0.05$ mean?*
2. **Minimize the probability of Type II error (β) given the chosen significance level (α)**
 - We’ll come back to this later in Chapter 10 when we talk about the “power” of a test, which is $1 - \beta$

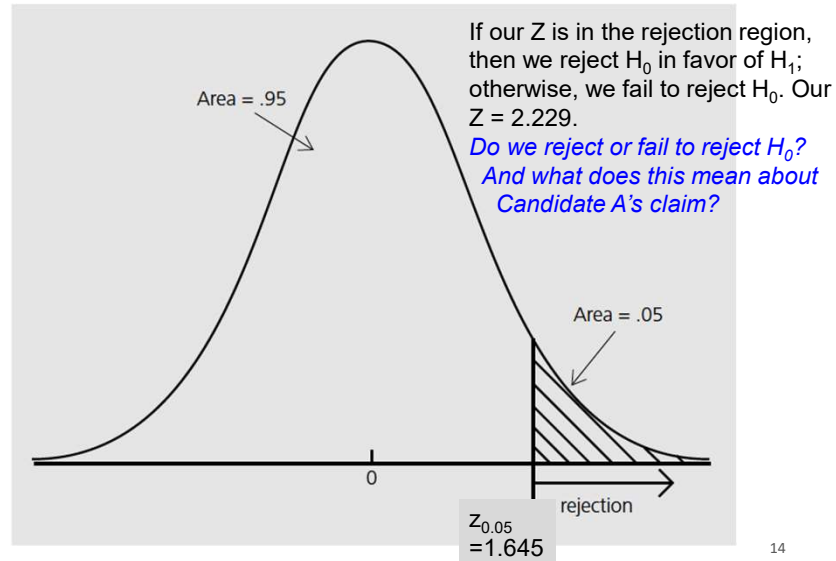
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Hypothesis testing procedure

1. State the **null & alternative hypotheses**. EX)
2. Define an appropriate **test statistic** (like an estimator; a function of the sample measurements on which the statistical decision will be based). EX)
3. Determine the **distribution of the test statistic under the null** hypothesis. EX)
In general, $\hat{p} \sim N\left(p, \frac{pq}{N}\right)$. Under H_0 :
4. **Standardize the test statistic** to something with known/tailed probabilities for its sampling distribution (e.g., Z, t, chi-square, F)
EX) $Z = \frac{\hat{p} - p}{\sigma_{\hat{p}}} \sim N(0, 1)$ in general, so in our example $Z =$
1. Choose a **significance level (α)**, the $P(\text{Type I error}) = P(\text{reject the null when it is true})$, typically 0.01, 0.05, or 0.10 & a **rejection region** (values of standardized test statistic that lead to rejection of H_0)
2. **Reject the null hypothesis if** the standardized statistic lies **in the rejection region**; fail to reject otherwise

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Rejection region for our example if we choose $\alpha=0.05$



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Notes on the language of hypothesis testing

- We either **reject** or **fail to reject** a hypothesis; we **never accept or prove** a hypothesis
- “Reject the null hypothesis (at the $\alpha \cdot 100\%$ level) in favor of the alternative hypothesis”
- “Fail to reject the null hypothesis (at the $\alpha \cdot 100\%$ level) in favor of the alternative hypothesis”

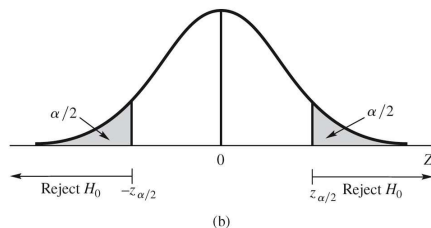
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Two- vs. one-sided alternatives & associated rejection regions for Z-statistics (similar for t)

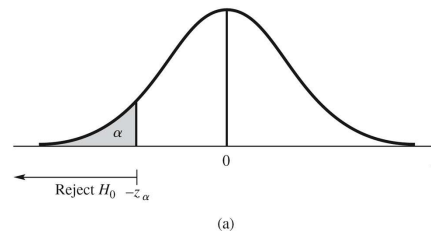
$H_0 : \theta = \theta_0$ (null hypothesis)

$H_1 : \begin{cases} \theta \neq \theta_0 & \text{(two-sided (two-tailed) alternative hypothesis)} \\ \theta > \theta_0 & \text{(one-sided (upper-tail) alternative hypothesis)} \\ \theta < \theta_0 & \text{(one-sided (lower-tail) alternative hypothesis)} \end{cases}$

Rejection region for
two-sided alternative



Rejection region for
one-sided (lower-tail) alternative



Example: testing a hypothesis about μ against a two-sided alternative hypothesis

The mean lifetime of a sample of 100 fluorescent light bulbs produced by a company is computed to be 1570 hours with a sample standard deviation of 120 hours. If μ is the mean lifetime of all the bulbs produced by the company, test the null hypothesis $\mu = 1600$ hours against the alternative hypothesis $\mu \neq 1600$ hours, using a level of significance of (a) 0.05 and (b) 0.01. (Note that N is large, so we can use the sample standard deviation as an estimate of σ .)

1. State the **null & alternative hypotheses**.
2. Define an appropriate **test statistic** (like an estimator; a function of the sample measurements on which the statistical decision will be based).
3. Determine the **distribution of the test statistic under the null** hypothesis.
4. **Standardize the test statistic** to something with known/tailed probabilities for its sampling distribution (e.g., Z , t , *chi-square*, F)
5. Choose a **significance level** (α , the $P(\text{Type I error}) = P(\text{reject the null when it is true})$, typically 0.01, 0.05, or 0.10) & a **rejection region** (values of standardized test statistic that lead to rejection of H_0)
6. **Reject the null hypothesis if** the standardized statistic lies **in the rejection region**; fail to reject otherwise

Continuing our previous example:
Testing a hypothesis about μ against a
one-sided lower tail alternative hypothesis

Now test the hypothesis $\mu = 1600$ hours against the alternative hypothesis $\mu < 1600$ hours, using a level of significance of (a) 0.05, (b) 0.01.

1. State the null & alternative hypotheses.
2. Define an appropriate test statistic (like an estimator; a function of the sample measurements on which the statistical decision will be based).
3. Determine the distribution of the test statistic under the null hypothesis.
4. Standardize the test statistic to something with known/tailed probabilities for its sampling distribution (e.g., Z , t , χ^2 , F).
5. Choose a significance level (α , the $P(\text{Type I error}) = P(\text{reject the null when it is true})$, typically 0.01, 0.05, or 0.10) & a rejection region (values of standardized test statistic that lead to rejection of H_0).
6. Reject the null hypothesis if the standardized statistic lies in the rejection region; fail to reject otherwise.

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Summary

Large-Sample α -Level Hypothesis Tests

$$H_0 : \theta = \theta_0.$$

$$H_a : \begin{cases} \theta > \theta_0 & (\text{upper-tail alternative}). \\ \theta < \theta_0 & (\text{lower-tail alternative}). \\ \theta \neq \theta_0 & (\text{two-tailed alternative}). \end{cases}$$

$$\text{Test statistic: } Z = \frac{\hat{\theta} - \theta_0}{\sigma_{\hat{\theta}}}.$$

$$\text{Rejection region: } \begin{cases} \{z > z_{\alpha}\} & (\text{upper-tail RR}). \\ \{z < -z_{\alpha}\} & (\text{lower-tail RR}). \\ \{|z| > z_{\alpha/2}\} & (\text{two-tailed RR}). \end{cases}$$

Table 8.1 Expected values and standard errors of some common point estimators

Target Parameter θ	Sample Size(s)	Point Estimator $\hat{\theta}$	Square root of variance of estimator $E(\hat{\theta})$	Standard Error $\sigma_{\hat{\theta}}$
μ	n	\bar{Y}	μ	$\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$
p	n	$\hat{p} = \frac{Y}{n}$	p	$\sqrt{\frac{pq}{n}}$
$\mu_1 - \mu_2$	n_1 and n_2	$\bar{Y}_1 - \bar{Y}_2$	$\mu_1 - \mu_2$	$\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}^{*\dagger}$
$p_1 - p_2$	n_1 and n_2	$\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2$	$p_1 - p_2$	$\sqrt{\frac{p_1q_1}{n_1} + \frac{p_2q_2}{n_2}}^{\dagger}$

* σ_1^2 and σ_2^2 are the variances of populations 1 and 2, respectively.

\dagger The two samples are assumed to be independent.

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Homework:

- WMS Ch. 10
 - Large-sample hypothesis tests (section 10.3): 10.17-10.21 (excluding part e on 10.17)

Next class:

- Small sample hypothesis testing for μ
- Relationship b/w hypothesis testing procedures & confidence intervals
- Another way to report the results of a statistical test: p-values

Reading for next class:

- WMS Ch. 10 (sections 10.5-10.8)

In-class exercise on hypothesis testing

EXAMPLE 10.6

A machine in a factory must be repaired if it produces more than 10% defectives among the large lot of items that it produces in a day. A random sample of 100 items from the day's production contains 15 defectives, and the supervisor says that the machine must be repaired. Does the sample evidence support his decision? Use a test with level .01.

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In-class exercise on hypothesis testing

EXAMPLE 10.7

A psychological study was conducted to compare the reaction times of men and women to a stimulus. Independent random samples of 50 men and 50 women were employed in the experiment. The results are shown in Table 10.2. Do the data present sufficient evidence to suggest a difference between true mean reaction times for men and women? Use $\alpha = .05$. Also find the p-value for your test statistic.

Table 10.2 Data for Example 10.7

Men	Women
$n_1 = 50$	$n_2 = 50$
$\bar{y}_1 = 3.6$ seconds	$\bar{y}_2 = 3.8$ seconds
$s_1^2 = .18$	$s_2^2 = .14$

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