CSL003P1M: Probability and Statistics Lecture 41 (Testing of Hypothesis-I)

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Introduction

- A statistical hypothesis is usually a statement about a set of parameters of a population distribution.
- It is called hypothesis because it is not known whether or not it is true.
- A primary problem is to develop a procedure for determining whether or not the values of a random sample from this population are consistent with the hypothesis.
- If the random sample is deemed to be consistent with the hypothesis under considertaion, we say that the hypothesis has been "accepted"; otherwise we say that it has been "rejected".

Introduction

- Note that in accepting a given hypothesis, we are not actually claiming that it is true but rather data appear to be consistent with it.
 - For instance, in the case of a normal $(\theta,1)$ population, if a resulting sample of size 10 has an average value of 1.25, then although such a result cannot be regarded as being evidence in favor of the hypothesis " $\theta < 1$ ", it is not inconsistent with this hypothesis, which would thus be accepted.
 - On the other hand, if the sample of size 10 has an average value of 3, then even though a sample value that large is possible when $\theta < 1$, it is so unlikely that it seems inconsistent with this hypothesis, which would thus be rejected.

Null Hypothesis

- Consider a population having distribution D_{θ} , where θ is unknown, and suppose we want to test a hypothesis about θ . We shall denote this hypothesis by H_0 and call it the **null hypothesis**.
 - For example, if D_{θ} is a normal distribution function with mean θ and variance equal to 1, then two possible null hypotheses about θ are

(a)
$$H_0: \theta = 1$$

(b) $H_0: \theta \le 1$

Thus the first of these hypotheses states that population is normal with mean 1 and variance 1, whereas the second states that it is normal with variance 1 and mean less than or equal to 1.

• Note that the null hypthesis in (a), when true, completely specifies the population distribution; whereas the null hypothesis in (b) does not.



Simple and Composite Hypothesis

Simple Hypothesis

A hypothesis that, when true, completely specifies the population distribution is called a simple hypothesis.

Composite Hypothesis

A hypothesis that, when true, does not completely specify the population distribution is called a composite hypothesis.

Critical Region

- Suppose now that in order to test a specific null hypothesis H_0 , a population sample of size n say X_1, \ldots, X_n is to be observed.
- Based on these values, we must decide whether or not to accept H_0 .
- A test for H_0 can be specified by defining a region C in n-dimensional space with the provision that the hypothesis is to be rejected if the random sample X_1, \ldots, X_n turns out to lie in C and accepted otherwise.
- The region *C* is called the **critical region**.
- In other words, the statistical test determined by the critical region C is the one that

accepts
$$H_0$$
 if $(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) \notin C$ rejects H_0 if $(X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n) \in C$



Example-1

A common test of the hypothesis that θ , the mean of a normal population with variance 1, is equal to 1 has a critical region given by

$$C = \left\{ (X_1, \dots, X_n) : \left| \frac{\sum_{i=1}^n X_i}{n} - 1 \right| > \frac{1.96}{\sqrt{n}} \right\}$$

Thus, this test calls for rejection of the null hypothesis that $\theta=1$ when the sample average differs from 1 by more than 1.96 divided by the square root of the sample size.

Type-I and Type-II Error

Type-I Error

Type-I error is said to result if the test incorrectly calls for rejecting H_0 when it is indeed correct.

Type-II Error

Type-II error is said to result if the test incorrectly calls for accepting H_0 when it is indeed incorrect.

Level of the Significance of the Test

- The objective of a statistical test of H₀ is not to explicitly determine whether or not H₀ is true but rather to determine if its validity is consistent with the resultant data.
- Hence, with this objective it seems reasonable that H_0 should only be rejected if the resultant data are very unlikely when H_0 is true.
- The classical way of accomplishing is by specifying a value α which is called the **level of significance of the test**.

The level of significance of the test

It is required that the test have the property that the probability of a type-I error can never be greater than α . The value α is called the level of significance of the test.

The commonly chosen values of α are being 0.1, 0.05, 0.005.



It is known that if a signal of value μ is sent from location A, then the value received at location B is normally distributed with mean μ and standard deviation 2. That is, the random noise added to the signal is an N(0,4) random variable. There is reason for the people at location B to suspect that the signal value $\mu=8$ will be sent today. Test this hypothesis if the same signal value is independently sent five times and the average value received at location B is $\bar{X}=9.5$.

Solution: Let

$$Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$$

will have a standard normal distribution. Now,

$$P\left\{|Z|>\frac{|\bar{X}-\mu|\sqrt{n}}{\sigma}\right\}=\alpha$$

We compute the test statistic taking $\bar{X} = 9.5$ and $\mu_0 = 8$.

$$\frac{\sqrt{n}|\bar{X} - \mu_0|}{\sigma} = \frac{\sqrt{5}(1.5)}{2} = 1.68$$

Let

$$P\{Z > z_{\alpha/2}\} = \alpha/2$$

For $\alpha = 0.05$, we have $z_{0.025} = 1.96$, or, in other words

$$P{Z > z_{0.025} = 1.96} = 0.025$$

Since 1.68 < 1.96, the data are not inconsistent with the null hypothesis.



If we would have chosen a test that had a 10 percent chance of rejecting H_0 when H_0 was true, then the null hypothesis would have been rejected. Because for $\alpha=0.1$,

$$P{Z > z_{0.05} = 1.645} = 0.05$$

and 1.68 > 1.645.

p-Value of the Test

- For any observed value of the test statistic, call it ν , the test calls for rejection of the null hypothesis if the probability that the test statistic would be as large as ν when H_0 is true is less than or equal to the significance level α .
- From this, it follows that we an determine whether or not to accept the null hypothesis by computing, first, the value of the test statistic and, second, the probability that a unit normal would (in absolute value) exceed that quantity.
- This probability called the p-value of the test gives the critical significance level in the sense that H_0 will be accepted if the significance level α is less than the p-value and rejected if it is greater than or equal.

In the previous exercise, suppose that the average of the 5 values received is $\bar{X}=8.5$. Find the *p*-value.

Solution: In the previous exercise, $\mu_0 = 8$.

$$\frac{\sqrt{n}|\bar{X} - \mu_0|}{\sigma} = \frac{\sqrt{5}}{4} \approx 0.559$$

Since

$$P\{|Z| > 0.559\} = 2P\{Z > 0.559\} = 2 \times 0.288 = 0.576$$

it follows that the p-value is 0.576 and thus the null hypothesis H_0 that the signal sent has value 8 would be accepted at any significance level $\alpha < 0.576$.



In the previous example, suppose that the average of the 5 values received is $\bar{X}=11.5$. Find the *p*-value.

Solution: In the previous exercise, $\mu_0 = 8$.

$$\frac{\sqrt{n}|\bar{X}-\mu_0|}{\sigma}=1.75\sqrt{5}\approx 3.913$$

Since

$$P\{|Z| > 3.913\} = 2P\{Z > 3.913\} \approx 0.00005$$

For such a small *p*-value, the hypothesis that the value 8 was sent is rejected.



One-Sided Tests

- In testing the null hypothesis that $\mu = \mu_0$, we have chosen a test that calls for rejection when \bar{X} is far from μ_0 . That is, a very small value of \bar{X} or a very large value appears to make it unlikely that μ (which \bar{X} is estimating) could equal μ_0 .
- However, what happens when the alternative hypothesis to $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$ is $H_1: \mu > \mu_0$.
- Clearly, in this latter case we would not want to reject H_0 when \bar{X} is small (since a small \bar{X} is more likely when H_0 is true than when H_1 is true).

One-Sided Tests

Thus, in testing

$$H_0: \mu = \mu_0$$
 versus $H_1: \mu > \mu_0$

we should reject H_0 when \bar{X} , the point estimate of μ_0 , is much greater than μ_0 . That is the critical region should be of the following form:

$$C = \{(X_1, \ldots, X_n) : \bar{X} - \mu_0 > c\}$$

• Since the probability of rejection should equal α when H_0 is true (that is, when $\mu = \mu_0$) we require that c be such that

$$P\{\bar{X} - \mu_0 > c\} = \alpha.$$



In the previous exercise, we know in advance that the signal value is at least as large as 8. What can be concluded in this case?

Solution: To see if the data are consistent with the hypothesis that the mean is 8, we test

$$H_0: \mu = 8$$

against the one-sided alternative

$$H_1: \mu > 8$$

The value of the test statistic is $\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \mu_0)/\sigma = \sqrt{5}(9.5 - 8)/2 = 1.68$, and the *p*-value is the probability that a standard normal would exceed 1.68, namely,

$$p$$
-value = $1 - \Phi(1.68) = 0.0465$



All cigarettes presently on the market have an average nicotine content of at least 1.6 mg per cigarette. A firm that produces cigarettes claims that it has discovered a new way to cure tobacco leaves that will result in the average nicotine content of a cigarette being less than 1.6 mg. To test this claim, a sample of 20 of the firm's cigarettes were analyzed. If it is known that the standard deviation of a cigarette's nicotine content is 0.8 mg, what conclusions can be drawn, at the 5 percent level of significance, if the average nicotine content of the 20 cigarettes is 1.54?

Solution: We should test

$$H_0: \mu \geq 1.6$$
 versus $H_1: \mu < 1.6$

Now, the value of the test statistic is

$$\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \mu_0)/\sigma = \sqrt{20}(1.54 - 1.6)/8 = -0.336$$

and so the p-value is given by

$$p$$
-value = $P\{Z < -0.336\} = 0.368$

Since this value is greater than 0.05, the foregoing data do not enable us to reject, at the 5 percent level of significance.

Thank You