

Testing of Hypotheses

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Background

- Random variables
 - Their measurements show variations
 - For no reasons at all
- We are interested in
 - **Expected Values** of random variables
 - But, we may get value “off” from the expected value
 - In such situations, how to decide if the value is:
 - Within the expected / permissible deviation from the mean?
- Such situations are encountered
 - While taking many decisions

Example

- Based on a study, it has been established that:
 - On an average, blood platelet count lower than 75000 is indicative of a certain disease
- When a patient reports a blood count of 60000
 - Should the doctor start treating the patient?

Example

- Based on a study, it has been established that:
 - On an average, blood platelet count lower than 75000 is indicative of a certain disease
- When a patient reports a blood count of 60000
 - Should the doctor start treating the patient?
- Questions:
 - Is this value within expected variations?
 - Or is it not?
 - Are there any statistical tests that can help decide?

Statistical Hypothesis

- Statistical Hypothesis
 - An assumption or a statement
 - About one or two parameters
 - Involving one or more populations
 - May or may not be true
- Testing of Hypotheses
 - Based on data samples
 - Decide whether the hypothesis is true / false
- Example:
 - Hypothesis: The patient is suffering from the disease
 - Hypothesis: platelet count < 75000

The method of statistical hypotheses

- First of all we assume some hypothesis is correct
 - (Not necessarily the one we believe to be true!)
 - Example: The patient is not suffering from the disease
 - Hypothesis: Platelet count is actually ≥ 75000
 - This is known as the **NULL hypothesis**: H_0
 - We have to prove that the platelet count is – beyond doubt – not a random variation of the real value.
- We then carry out a test
 - The goal is to check if the result of the test is beyond the limits of believability
 - If it is, we have to reject our hypothesis.

Fundamental Concepts: Hypotheses Testing

- **The Null and alternate hypothesis**

- H_0 = Null hypothesis
- H_1 = Alternate hypothesis

- **Possible Decisions**

- Reject the Null hypothesis
 - This is the Goal: to prove with high probability
- Do not reject the Null hypothesis

- **The Test Statistic**

- Numerical value of the test statistic leads us to make the decision

- **The Critical Region (CR) or the Rejection Region (RR)**

- An interval determined by the selection of appropriate distributions
- Determines the region related to the test statistic and used to decide the acceptance / rejection of hypotheses

- **Conclusion and interpretation**

The NULL hypothesis: H_0

- We choose the **NULL hypothesis H_0** to be specific enough and simple enough that we can actually compute the likelihood of any given outcome of our observations
- NULL hypothesis is something that the data is likely to reject
 - Example:
 - Assume : Average mean temperature is 98
 - A sample measurement : 99
 - Data indicates: Observed temperature is not normal
 - Hypothesis H_0 should be “Observed temperature is Normal”

The “alternate” hypothesis: H_1

- The alternate hypothesis is something that we keep in mind, and it is something that we would like to accept in case the null hypothesis gets rejected.
- The alternate hypothesis is usually something that the data will support.
- In our example:
 - H_1 : “Temperature is Not normal”

Stating the Hypothesis

Stating H_0 and H_1

1. Two tailed test

- $H_0 : P = P_0$ versus $H_1 : P \neq P_0$

2. Left tailed test

- $H_0 : P \geq P_0$ versus $H_1 : P < P_0$

3. Right tailed test

- $H_0 : P \leq P_0$ versus $H_1 : P > P_0$

Outcome of Hypothesis Testing

- NULL hypothesis is rejected & Alternate hypothesis is accepted

OR

- NULL hypothesis is accepted & Alternate hypothesis is rejected

Type I Error

- Consider the following situation:
 - We reject the null hypothesis
 - However, in reality, the null hypothesis is indeed true
 - Therefore, we have rejected the null hypothesis, when, in reality it is true
 - This is called a **TYPE I ERROR**
- **TYPE I errors** ➔ False positives
- Probability of Type I error = α (the confidence level)
 - Also known as “level of significance”
- Example: A healthy person is considered sick ...

Type I Error

$$\begin{aligned}\alpha &= P(\text{committing a type I error}), \\ &= P(\text{rejecting } H_0 \text{ when } H_0 \text{ is true}), \\ &= P(\text{rejecting } H_0 \text{ when } H_1 \text{ is false}).\end{aligned}$$

Most common values for α

- 0.01, 0.05, 0.1
- Corresponding with 99%, 95% and 90% confidence levels

Type II Error

- Type II Error
 - Failing to reject the NULL hypothesis even when in reality it is false
- Probability of Type II Error: β
 - It is very difficult to calculate this probability
 - It depends on a variety of unknown parameters

$$\begin{aligned}\beta &= P(\text{committing a type II error}), \\ &= P(\text{not rejecting } H_0 \text{ when } H_0 \text{ is false}), \\ &= P(\text{not rejecting } H_0 \text{ when } H_1 \text{ is true}).\end{aligned}$$

Type I and Type II errors

- We would like to reduce both types of errors
- However, when we reduce probability of Type I error we increase the probability of Type II error
 - By making the test more stringent, we reduce the risk of falsely rejecting the null hypothesis BUT increase the risk of failing to reject it when we should
- That's why the de facto value of 0.05 is so popular
- Note:
 - Selecting a larger sample size minimizes both types of errors

Size and Power of a test

- The *size* of a test is given by α
- Power of a test is given by $(1 - \beta)$
- Ideal we want our test to have:
 - Low size AND
 - High power
- The practice of computing the *power* of a test is known as
 - **Power Analysis**

Hypothesis Testing: Types

- About one parameter
 - One proportion
 - One mean
 - One standard deviation
- About two parameters
 - Two proportions
 - Two means
 - Two standard deviations

Steps in Hypotheses Testing

Classical Method

1. Determine and state H_0 and H_1
2. Decide the significance level α and the critical region
3. Based on the parameter, choose the test statistic
4. Using available data compute the test statistic
5. Make the statistical **Accept** or **Reject** decision based on
 - a) Computed value of the test statistic
 - b) The critical region identified in step 2

Hypothesis Testing about one proportion

- Characteristics of the proportion

- Best estimate $\hat{p} = x/n$

- Standard deviation $\sigma_{\hat{p}} = \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}}$

- Conditions

- The sample is a simple random sample
 - Sample values are independent of each other
 - $np(1-p) \geq 10$

Confidence levels and Critical Regions

- The most used values for α are
 - 0.01, 0.05, 0.1
 - Distribution relevant to proportions
- Test statistic for proportions

$$Z = \frac{\hat{p} - p_0}{\sqrt{[p_0(1 - p_0) / n]}} = \frac{x - np_0}{\sqrt{np_0(1 - p_0)}}$$

Example / Exercise

- Known from past surveys
 - 35% of country's citizens invest abroad
- Current Survey
 - 800 adults were surveyed
 - 320 were found to hold foreign assets
- Government wants to know
 - If the foreign investment is still $> 35\%$
 - With 10% significance level

Solution (Classic Method)

- $H_0 : P \leq 0.35$ versus $H_1 : P > 0.35$
 - Right tailed test
- Significance level $10\% = 0.1$
- Z value associated with $0.1 = 1.28$ (Normal Dist)
- Test to be done is as follows:
 - Since it is right tailed test
 - Hypothesis H_0 can be accepted if calculated Z value is ≤ 1.28 (rejection region $Z > 1.28$)
- Calculated Z value
 - $$Z = \frac{\hat{p} - p_0}{\sqrt{[p_0(1 - p_0) / n]}} = \frac{x - np_0}{\sqrt{np_0(1 - p_0)}} = 2.965$$
 - Since $Z_{cal} > 1.28$, Hypothesis is rejected
- Result: Foreign investment still exceeds 35%

The *p-value*

- The computed probability of getting the observed result, or any result at least as extreme in its difference from what the null hypothesis would imply – is called the *p-value*
- A *p-value* of 0.05 is the de facto standard cut-off between significant and non-significant results
- If this de facto value is used as the critical value, it will result in wrong results 5% of the time

Steps in Hypotheses Testing: *p-value method*

p-value method

1. Determine and state H_0 and H_1
2. Decide the significance level α
3. Based on the parameter, choose the test statistic
4. Using available data compute the test statistic and the p-value
 - How to calculate p-value?
5. Make the statistical **Accept** or **Reject** decision based on
 - α and p-value
 - a) p-value less than α should reject H_0
 - b) p-value greater than α should not reject H_0

Solution: p-value method

- For two tailed tests
 - P-value = $2 * P(Z < Z_{cal})$
- For Left-tailed tests
 - P-value = $P(Z < Z_{cal})$
- For Right-tailed tests
 - P-value = $P(Z > Z_{cal})$
- In all these cases, if the computed p-value is < significance level α the hypothesis is rejected
 - Else, hypothesis is not rejected

Solution Based on p-value

- $H_0 : P \leq 0.35$ versus $H_1 : P > 0.35$
 - Right tailed test
- Significance level $10\% = 0.1$
- Calculated Z value
 - $Z = \frac{\hat{p} - p_0}{\sqrt{[p_0(1 - p_0) / n]}} = \frac{x - np_0}{\sqrt{np_0(1 - p_0)}} = 2.965$
 - From the Normal tables 2.965 corresponds to 0.99848
- $P(Z > Z_{cal}) = 1 - 0.99850 = 0.0015$
- $P(Z > Z_{cal}) = 0.0015 < \text{significance level } 0.1$
 - Therefore hypothesis $P \leq 0.35$ is rejected
- Result: Foreign investment still exceeds 35%

Hypothesis testing : Single Parameter

- The Mean, when variance is known
 - Test statistic $Z = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$
- The Mean, when variance is unknown
 - Large sample size $Z = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{s / \sqrt{n}}$ (normal dist)
 - Small sample size $T = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{s / \sqrt{n}}$ (t-distribution)
- The Variance
 - Test statistic $\chi^2 = \frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma^2}$ (chi-squared)
- The Proportion
 - Test statistic

$$Z = \frac{\hat{p} - p_0}{\sqrt{[p_0(1-p_0)/n]}} = \frac{x - np_0}{\sqrt{np_0(1-p_0)}}$$

$$\hat{p} = x/n,$$
$$\sigma_{\hat{p}} = \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}}$$

Exercise: 1

- In a medical test, rats were subjected to unit dose of a drug and recording their response times. Based on prior studies, it is known that the rats with no drugs given have a mean response time of 1.2 seconds. The new studies, after drugs, involving 100 rats throw up a mean response time of 1.05 seconds with a standard deviation of 0.5 seconds. Can we conclude that the drug has any effect on the response time? (Level of significance 0.01)

Solution: 1

- $\mu = 1.2$
- $\bar{x} = 1.05$
- $n = 100$
- $s = 0.5s$
- Data indicates: reduction in time
- H_0 : No change in mean time
- H_1 : Change in mean time

- Since we are testing equality, test is two tailed
- Since $n > 30$, normal distribution assumed
- At 0.01 significance levels, the z limits are
 - 0.005 and 0.995
- $z_{0.005} = -2.576$ and $z_{0.995} = 2.576$
- Calculated $z = (\bar{x} - \mu)/(s/\sqrt{n}) = -3$
- Since -3 is less than -2.576, it lies in REJECTION region.
- Therefore H_0 is REJECTED and H_1 is accepted
 - Mean response time has changed from 1.2 seconds with the introduction of the drug
- p-value method
 - Calculated p-value: $\text{pnorm}(-3) = -0.00135$
 - Since $|-0.00135| < 0.01$ (significance) p-value is less than significance. Therefore, H_0 is rejected & H_1 accepted

Problem 2

- A major car manufacturer wants to test a new engine to determine whether it meets new air-pollution standards.
- The mean emission m of all engines must be less than 20 parts per million of carbon.
- Ten engines are manufactured for testing purposes and the emission level of each is determined to be:
15.6 16.2 22.2 20.5 16.4 19.4 16.6 17.9 12.7 13.9.
- Does the data supply sufficient evidence to allow the manufacturer to conclude this type of engine meet the pollution standard?
 - Test the hypothesis at a level $\alpha = 0.01$.

Solution: 2

- $n = 10$
- $\bar{x} = 17.14$
- $s = 2.9228$
- $\alpha = 0.01$
- Data indicates: emission < 20 ppm ($\bar{x} = 17.14$)
- H_0 : emission ≥ 20 ppm
- H_1 : emission < 20 ppm

- Since we are testing inequality (\geq), the test is left tailed
- Since $n < 30$, t-distribution assumed with $\text{dof} = 10 - 1 = 9$
- At 0.01 significance levels, the t limit is:
 - $t_{0.01} = \text{qt}(0.01) = -2.82$
- Calculated $t = (17.14 - 20) / (2.9228 / \sqrt{10}) = -3.09$
- Since -3.09 is less than -2.82, it lies in REJECTION region.
- Therefore H_0 is REJECTED and H_1 is accepted
 - Emission is < 20 ppm
- p-value method
 - Calculated p-value: $\text{pt}(-3.09) = 0.006467$
 - Since $0.006467 < 0.01$ (significance level) p-value is less than significance level. Therefore, H_0 is rejected & H_1 accepted

Problem 3

- The National Science foundation, in a survey of 2237 engineering graduate students who earned PhD degrees, found that 607 were US citizens; the majority (1630) of the PhD degrees were awarded to foreign nationals. Conduct a test to determine whether the true percentage of PhD degrees awarded to foreign nationals exceeds 50% at a level $\alpha = 0.01$.

Solution: 3

- $n = 2237$
- $\text{pcap} = 1630/2237 = 0.729$
- $p_0 = 0.5$
- $\alpha = 0.01$
- Data indicates: $\text{pcap} > 0.5$ (0.729)
- H_0 : Proportion of degree to foreigners ≤ 0.5
- H_1 : Proportion of degree to foreigners > 0.5

- Since we are testing inequality (\leq), the test is right tailed
- Since $n > 30$, normal distribution assumed
- At 0.01 significance levels, the z limit (for right tailed region) is:
 - $z_{(1-0.01)} = z_{(1-0.01)} = \text{qnorm}(0.99) = 2.3263$
- Calculated $z = (0.729 - 0.5)/\sqrt{0.729 * (1-0.729)/2237} = 24.37$
- Since 24.37 is greater than 2.3263, it lies in REJECTION region.
- Therefore H_0 is REJECTED and H_1 is accepted
 - Therefore: Proportion of degree to foreigners > 0.5
- p-value method
 - Calculated p-value: $1-\text{pnorm}(24.37)$ which is approximately “0”
 - Since p-value is less than significance level, therefore, H_0 is rejected & H_1 accepted