## 8.4.2 General Setting and Definitions

<u>Example 8.22</u> provided a basic introduction to hypothesis testing. Here, we would like to provide a general setting for problems of hypothesis testing and formally define the terminology that is used in hypothesis testing. Although there are several new phrases such as null hypothesis, type I error, significance level, etc., there are not many new concepts or tools here. Thus, after going through a few examples, the concepts should become clear.

Suppose that  $\theta$  is an unknown parameter. A hypothesis is a statement such as  $\theta=1$ ,  $\theta>1.3$ ,  $\theta\neq0.5$ , etc. In hypothesis testing problems, we need to decide between two contradictory hypotheses. More precisely, let S be the set of possible values for  $\theta$ . Suppose that we can partition S into two disjoint sets  $S_0$  and  $S_1$ . Let  $H_0$  be the hypothesis that  $\theta\in S_0$ , and let  $H_1$  be the hypothesis that  $\theta\in S_1$ .

 $H_0$  (the **null** hypothesis):  $\theta \in S_0$ .

 $H_1$  (the **alternative** hypothesis):  $\theta \in S_1$ .

In Example 8.22, S=[0,1],  $S_0=\{\frac{1}{2}\}$ , and  $S_1=[0,1]-\{\frac{1}{2}\}$ . Here,  $H_0$  is an example of a **simple** hypothesis because  $S_0$  contains only one value of  $\theta$ . On the other hand,  $H_1$  is an example of **composite** hypothesis since  $S_1$  contains more than one element. It is often the case that the null hypothesis is chosen to be a simple hypothesis. Often, to decide between  $H_0$  and  $H_1$ , we look at a function of the observed data. For instance, in Example 8.22, we looked at the random variable Y, defined as

$$Y = rac{X - n heta_0}{\sqrt{n heta_0(1 - heta_0)}},$$

where X was the total number of heads. Here, X is a function of the observed data (sequence of heads and tails), and thus Y is a function of the observed data. We call Y a *statistic*.

**Definition 8.3**. Let  $X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n$  be a random sample of interest. A **statistic** is a real-valued function of the data. For example, the sample mean, defined as

$$W(X_1,X_2,\cdots,X_n)=rac{X_1+X_2+\ldots+X_n}{n},$$

is a statistic. A **test statistic** is a statistic based on which we build our test.

To decide whether to choose  $H_0$  or  $H_1$ , we choose a test statistic,  $W=W(X_1,X_2,\cdots,X_n)$ . Now, assuming  $H_0$ , we can define the set  $A\subset\mathbb{R}$  as the set of possible values of W for which we would accept  $H_0$ . The set A is called the **acceptance region**, while the set  $R=\mathbb{R}-A$  is said to be the **rejection region**. In Example 8.22, the acceptance region was found to be the set A=[-1.96,1.96], and the set  $R=(-\infty,-1.96)\cup(1.96,\infty)$  was the rejection region.

There are two possible errors that we can make. We define **type I error** as the event that we reject  $H_0$  when  $H_0$  is true. Note that the probability of type I error in general depends on the real value of  $\theta$ . More specifically,

$$egin{aligned} P( ext{type I error} \mid heta) &= P( ext{Reject } H_0 \mid heta) \ &= P(W \in R \mid heta), \quad ext{for } heta \in S_0. \end{aligned}$$

If the probability of type I error satisfies

$$P(\text{type I error}) \leq \alpha, \quad \text{ for all } \theta \in S_0,$$

then we say the test has **significance level**  $\alpha$  or simply the test is a **level**  $\alpha$  test. Note that it is often the case that the null hypothesis is a simple hypothesis, so  $S_0$  has only one element (as in <u>Example 8.22</u>). The second possible error that we can make is to accept  $H_0$  when  $H_0$  is false. This is called the **type II error**. Since the alternative hypothesis,  $H_1$ , is usually a composite hypothesis (so it includes more than one value of  $\theta$ ), the probability of type II error is usually a function of  $\theta$ . The probability of type II error is usually shown by  $\beta$ :

$$\beta(\theta) = P(\text{Accept } H_0 \mid \theta), \quad \text{ for } \theta \in S_1.$$

We now go through an example to practice the above concepts.

## Example 8.23

Consider a radar system that uses radio waves to detect aircraft. The system receives a signal and, based on the received signal, it needs to decide whether an aircraft is present or not. Let X be the received signal. Suppose that we know

$$X = W$$
, if no aircraft is present.

$$X = 1 + W$$
, if an aircraft is present.

where  $W \sim N(0, \sigma^2 = \frac{1}{9})$ . Thus, we can write  $X = \theta + W$ , where  $\theta = 0$  if there is no aircraft, and  $\theta = 1$  if there is an aircraft. Suppose that we define  $H_0$  and  $H_1$  as follows:

 $H_0$  (null hypothesis): No aircraft is present.

 $H_1$  (alternative hypothesis): An aircraft is present.

- a. Write the null hypothesis,  $H_0$ , and the alternative hypothesis,  $H_1$ , in terms of possible values of  $\theta$ .
- b. Design a level 0.05 test ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) to decide between  $H_0$  and  $H_1$ .
- c. Find the probability of type II error,  $\beta$ , for the above test. Note that this is the probability of missing a present aircraft.
- d. If we observe X=0.6, is there enough evidence to reject  $H_0$  at significance level  $\alpha=0.01$ ?
- e. If we would like the probability of missing a present aircraft to be less than 5%, what is the smallest significance level that we can achieve?

## **Solution**

a. The null hypothesis corresponds to  $\theta=0$  and the alternative hypothesis corresponds to  $\theta=1$ . Thus, we can write

 $H_0$  (null hypothesis): No aircraft is present:  $\theta = 0$ .

 $H_1$  (alternative hypothesis): An aircraft is present:  $\theta = 1$ .

Note that here both hypotheses are simple.

b. To decide between  $H_0$  and  $H_1$ , we look at the observed data. Here, the situation is relatively simple. The observed data is just the random variable X. Under  $H_0$ ,  $X \sim N(0, \frac{1}{9})$ , and under  $H_1$ ,  $X \sim N(1, \frac{1}{9})$ . Thus, we can suggest the following test: We choose a threshold c. If the observed value of X is less than c, we choose  $H_0$  (i.e.,  $\theta = EX = 0$ ). If the observed value of X is larger than C, we choose C0 (i.e., C0) and C1. To choose C2, we use the required C3:

$$P(\text{type I error}) = P(\text{Reject } H_0 \mid H_0)$$
  
=  $P(X > c \mid H_0)$   
=  $P(W > c)$   
=  $1 - \Phi(3c)$  (since assuming  $H_0, X \sim N(0, \frac{1}{9})$ ).

Letting  $P(\text{type I error}) = \alpha$ , we obtain

$$c = \frac{1}{3}\Phi^{-1}(1-\alpha).$$

Letting  $\alpha = 0.05$ , we obtain

$$c = \frac{1}{3}\Phi^{-1}(0.95) = 0.548$$

c. Note that, here, the alternative hypothesis is a simple hypothesis. That is, it includes only one value of  $\theta$  (i.e.,  $\theta=1$ ). Thus, we can write

$$eta = P( ext{type II error}) = P( ext{accept } H_0 \mid H_1) \ = P(X < c \mid H_1) \ = P(1 + W < c) \ = P(W < c - 1) \ = \Phi(3(c - 1)).$$

Since c = 0.548, we obtain  $\beta = 0.088$ .

d. In part (b), we obtained

$$c = \frac{1}{3}\Phi^{-1}(1 - \alpha).$$

For  $\alpha=0.01$ , we have  $c=\frac{1}{3}\Phi^{-1}(0.99)=0.775$  which is larger than 0.6. Thus, we cannot reject  $H_0$  at significance level  $\alpha=0.01$ .

e. In part (c), we obtained

$$\beta = \Phi(3(c-1)).$$

To have  $\beta = 0.05$ , we obtain

$$c = 1 + \frac{1}{3}\Phi^{-1}(\beta)$$
  
=  $1 + \frac{1}{3}\Phi^{-1}(0.05)$   
=  $0.452$ 

Thus, we need to have  $c \le 0.452$  to obtain  $\beta \le 0.05$ . Therefore,

$$P(\text{type I error}) = 1 - \Phi(3c)$$
  
= 1 - \Phi(3 \times 0.452)  
= 0.0875,

which means that the smallest significance level that we can achieve is  $\alpha=0.0875$ .

**Trade-off Between**  $\alpha$  **and**  $\beta$ : Since  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  indicate error probabilities, we would ideally like both of them to be small. However, there is in fact a trade-off between  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$ . That is, if we want to decrease the probability of type I error ( $\alpha$ ), then the probability of type II error ( $\beta$ ) increases, and vise versa. To see this, we can look at our analysis in Example 8.23. In that example, we found

$$\alpha = 1 - \Phi(3c),$$
  
 $\beta = \Phi(3(c-1)).$ 

Note that  $\Phi(x)$  is an increasing function. If we make c larger,  $\alpha$  becomes smaller, and  $\beta$  becomes larger. On the other hand, if we make c smaller,  $\alpha$  becomes larger, and  $\beta$  becomes smaller. Figure 8.10 shows type I and type II error probabilities for  $\underline{\text{Example}}$  8.23.

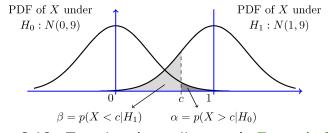


Figure 8.10 - Type I and type II errors in Example 8.23.