# **Tests of hypotheses**

- Confidence interval:
- Form an interval (on the basis of data) of plausible values for a population parameter.

Test of hypothesis:Answer a yes or no question regarding<br/>a population parameter.

Examples:

- $\longrightarrow$  Do the two strains have the same average response?
- $\longrightarrow$  Is the concentration of substance X in the water supply above the safe limit?
  - $\rightarrow$  Does the treatment have an effect?

## Example

We have a quantitative assay for the concentration of antibodies against a certain virus in blood from a mouse.

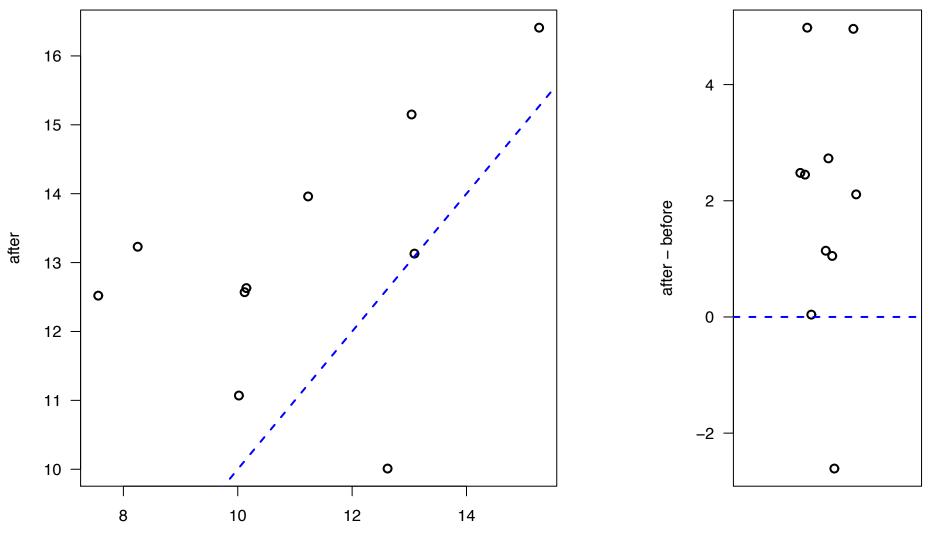
We apply our assay to a set of ten mice before and after the injection of a vaccine. (This is called a "paired" experiment.)

Let  $X_i$  denote the differences between the measurements ("after" minus "before") for mouse i.

We imagine that the  $X_i$  are independent and identically distributed Normal( $\mu$ ,  $\sigma$ ).

 $\rightarrow$  Does the vaccine have an effect? In other words: Is  $\mu \neq 0$ ?

### The data



before

# **Hypothesis testing**

We consider two hypotheses:

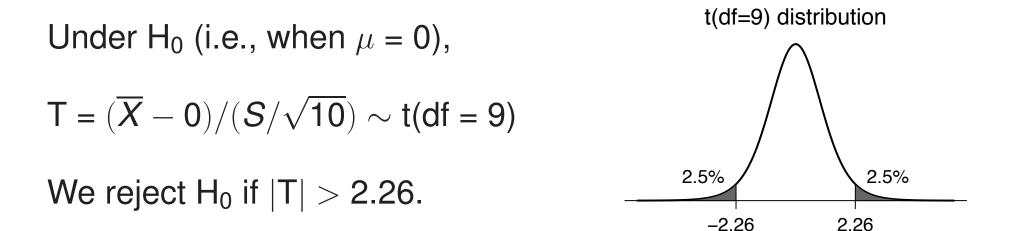
Null hypothesis, H<sub>0</sub>:  $\mu = 0$  Alternative hypothesis, H<sub>a</sub>:  $\mu \neq 0$ 

Type I error:Reject  $H_0$  when it is true(false positive)Type II error:Fail to reject  $H_0$  when it is false(false negative)

We set things up so that a Type I error is a worse error (and so that we are seeking to prove the alternative hypothesis). We want to control the rate (the significance level,  $\alpha$ ) of such errors.

- $\longrightarrow$  Test statistic:  $T = (\overline{X} 0)/(S/\sqrt{10})$
- → We reject H<sub>0</sub> if  $|T| > t^*$ , where t<sup>\*</sup> is chosen so that Pr(Reject H<sub>0</sub> | H<sub>0</sub> is true) = Pr( $|T| > t^* | \mu = 0$ ) =  $\alpha$ . (generally  $\alpha = 5\%$ )

# **Example (continued)**



As a result, if H<sub>0</sub> is true, there's a 5% chance that you'll reject it!

For the observed data:

 $\bar{x} = 1.93$ , s = 2.24, n = 10 T = (1.93 - 0) / (2.24/ $\sqrt{10}$ ) = 2.72

 $\longrightarrow$  Thus we reject H<sub>0</sub>.



- $\longrightarrow$  We seek to prove the alternative hypothesis.
- $\longrightarrow$  We are happy if we reject H<sub>0</sub>.
- $\longrightarrow$  In the case that we reject H<sub>0</sub>, we might say: *Either H<sub>0</sub> is false, or a rare event occurred*.

### **Another example**

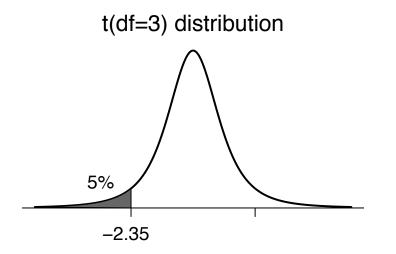
Question: is the concentration of substance X in the water supply above the safe level?

 $X_1, X_2, \ldots, X_4 \sim \text{iid Normal}(\mu, \sigma).$ 

 $\longrightarrow$  We want to test H<sub>0</sub>:  $\mu \ge 6$  (unsafe) versus H<sub>a</sub>:  $\mu < 6$  (safe).

Test statistic: 
$$T = \frac{\overline{X} - 6}{S/\sqrt{4}}$$

If we wish to have the significance level  $\alpha = 5\%$ , the rejection region is  $T < t^* = -2.35$ .



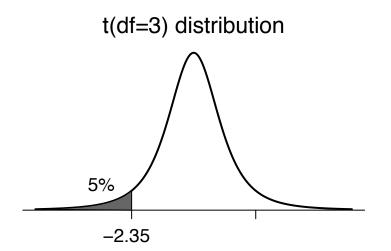
#### **One-tailed vs two-tailed tests**

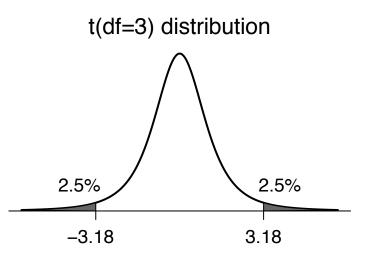
If you are trying to prove that a treatment improves things, you want a one-tailed (or one-sided) test.

You'll reject  $H_0$  only if  $T < t^*$ .

If you are just looking for a difference, use a two-tailed (or two-sided) test.

You'll reject  $H_0$  if  $T < t^*$  or  $T > t^*$ .





#### **P-values**

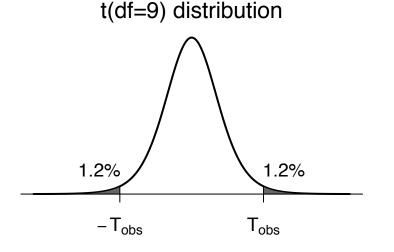
P-value:  $\longrightarrow$  the smallest significance level ( $\alpha$ ) for which you would fail to reject H<sub>0</sub> with the observed data.

 $\longrightarrow$  the probability, if H<sub>0</sub> was true, of receiving data as extreme as what was observed.

$$X_1,\ldots,X_{10} \sim \text{iid Normal}(\mu,\sigma),$$

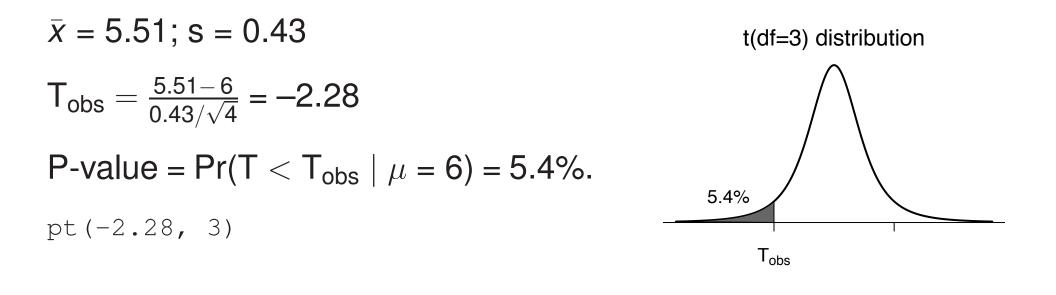
$$H_0: \mu = 0; H_a: \mu \neq 0.$$

 $\bar{x} = 1.93; s = 2.24$   $T_{obs} = \frac{1.93-0}{2.24/\sqrt{10}} = 2.72$ P-value =  $Pr(|T| > T_{obs}) = 2.4\%$ . 2\*pt(-2.72,9)



# **Another example**

$$X_1, \ldots, X_4 \sim \text{Normal}(\mu, \sigma)$$
  $H_0: \mu \ge 6; H_a: \mu < 6.$ 



 $\longrightarrow$  The P-value quantifies how likely it is to get data as extreme as the data observed, assuming the null hypothesis was true.

Recall: We want to prove the alternative hypothesis (i.e., reject H<sub>0</sub>, receive a small P-value)

# Hypothesis tests and confidence intervals

 $\rightarrow$  The 95% confidence interval for  $\mu$  is the set of values,  $\mu_0$ , such that the null hypothesis  $H_0$  :  $\mu = \mu_0$  would not be rejected by a two-sided test with  $\alpha = 5\%$ .

The 95% CI for  $\mu$  is the set of plausible values of  $\mu$ . If a value of  $\mu$  is plausible, then as a null hypothesis, it would not be rejected.

For example:

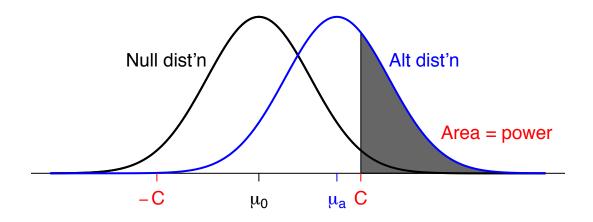
9.98 9.87 10.05 10.08 9.99 9.90 assumed to be iid Normal( $\mu,\sigma$ )  $\bar{x} = 9.98$ ; s = 0.082; n = 6; qt(0.975,5) = 2.57

The 95% CI for  $\mu$  is

 $9.98 \pm 2.57 \times 0.082 / \sqrt{6} = 9.98 \pm 0.086 = (9.89, 10.06)$ 

#### Power

The power of a test =  $Pr(reject H_0 | H_0 is false)$ .



The power depends on: • The null hypothesis and test statistic

- The sample size
- $\bullet$  The true value of  $\mu$
- $\bullet$  The true value of  $\sigma$

# Why "fail to reject"?

If the data are insufficient to reject  $H_0$ , we say,

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The data are insufficient to reject H_0.
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We shouldn't say, We have proven  $H_0$ .

- → We may only have low power to detect anything but extreme differences.
- → We control the rate of type I errors ("false positives") at 5% (or whatever), but we may have little or no control over the rate of type II errors.

### The effect of sample size

Let  $X_1, \ldots, X_n$  be iid Normal $(\mu, \sigma)$ . We wish to test  $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$  vs  $H_a : \mu \neq \mu_0$ . Imagine  $\mu = \mu_a$ .

