Notation z_{α}

Let z_{α} be the value that the area to the right of z_{α} under the standard normal curve is α . I.e.,

$$P(Z > z_{\alpha}) = \alpha$$
 or upper-tail area = α

For a one-sided test $\begin{cases} H_0: & \mu = \mu_0 \\ H_a: & \mu > \mu_0 \end{cases}$, the *P*-value $< \alpha$ if and only if the *z*-statistic $z = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu_0}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} > z_\alpha$. Similarly, for a two-sided test $\begin{cases} H_0: & \mu = \mu_0 \\ H_a: & \mu \neq \mu_0 \end{cases}$, the *P*-value $< \alpha$ if and only if the *z*-statistic $z = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu_0}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} > z_{\alpha/2}$.

Another Way to Look at Hypothesis Testing

For a one-sided test,

$$\begin{cases} H_0 & : \mu = \mu_0 \\ H_a & : \mu > \mu_0 \end{cases}$$

STAT22000 Autumn 2013 Lecture 21

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6.4 Power and Inference as a Decision

Lecture 21 - 1

6.3 Use and Abuse of Tests

the H₀ is rejected at level α if the test statistic $z = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu_0}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} > z_{\alpha}$, or equivalently if the sample mean

$$\overline{X} > \mu_0 + z_\alpha \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

For a two-sided test,

$$\begin{cases} H_0 & : \mu = \mu_0 \\ H_a & : \mu \neq \mu_0 \end{cases}$$

the H₀ is rejected at level α) if the absolute value of the z-statistic $|z| = \frac{|\overline{X} - \mu_0|}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} > z_{\alpha/2}$, or equivalently if

$$|\overline{X} - \mu_0| > z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

Lecture 21 - 3

Duality of Confidence Intervals and Two-Sided Tests

In a two-sided test,

$$H_0: \mu = \mu_0$$

 $H_a: \mu \neq \mu_0$

the null hypothesis is rejected at level α exactly when the value of μ_0 falls outside a $(1 - \alpha)100\%$ confidence interval for μ .

Reason. The null hypothesis is NOT rejected at level α if and only if

$$\frac{|\overline{X} - \mu_0|}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \le z_{\alpha/2} \iff -z_{\alpha/2}\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \le \overline{X} - \mu_0 \le z_{\alpha/2}\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$
$$\iff \overline{X} - z_{\alpha/2}\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \le \mu_0 \le \overline{X} + z_{\alpha/2}\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

I.e. μ_0 is in the interval,

$$\overline{X} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

which is exactly the (1 – α) confidence level for $\mu.$ Lecture 21 - 5

Confidence Interval Revisit

Recall in Lecture 18, we show the confidence interval for the population μ at confidence level $(1-\alpha)$ is

$$\overline{X} \pm z^* \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{I}}$$

in which z^* is the **critical value** that a standard Normal density has area $(1 - \alpha)$ between $-z^*$ and z^* .

With the z_{α} notation, the z^* above is simply $z_{\alpha/2}$. So the confidence interval for the population μ at confidence level $(1 - \alpha)$ is

$$\overline{X} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$



6.3 Use and Abuse of Tests

- ▶ Not rejecting $H_0 \neq Accept H_0$: just not enough evidence to conclude
- ► Significance ≠ Importance

That is because statistical significance doesn't tell you about the magnitude of the effect, only that there is one.

An effect could be too small to be relevant. And with a large enough sample size n, significance can be reached even for the tiniest effect.

Example. A drug for lung cancer is found to increase the $\overline{5}$ -year survival rate from 30% to 31% (with *P*-value < 0.001). Is this a great news for patients with lung cancer?

Interpreting Effect Size: It's All About Context There is no consensus on how big an effect has to be in order to be considered meaningful. In some cases, effects that may appear to be trivial can be very important.

Type I Error & Type II Error

The hypothesis H_0 can be either **true** or **false**. We can **reject** or **not reject** H_0

The following outcomes are possible when conducting a test:

	Our Decision		
Reality	Not Reject <i>H</i> 0	Reject <i>H</i> 0	
H ₀ is true	Correct decision	Type I Error	
H_0 is false	Type II Error	Correct decision	

Example:

	The suspect is actually	
Criminal Trial	innocent	guilty
Verdict of not guilty	Correct	The guilty goes free
(Not reject H_0)	Decision	(Type I Error)
Verdict of guilty	Convict the innocent	Correct
(Reject H ₀)	(Type II Error)	Decision

Lecture 21 - 7

Power = Ability to Detect the Alternative Hypothesis

The **power** is the probability of the test to reject the null H_0 when the alternative H_a is true.

Power =
$$P(\text{reject } H_0 | H_a \text{ is true})$$

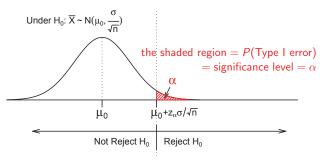
= $1 - P(\text{type II error})$
= Ability of a test to distinguish H_a from H₀

Power calculation requires knowledge of distribution of test statistics under H_a . Simply knowing $\mu \neq \mu_0$ is not enough. So we hypothesize a value for $\mu = \mu_a$ under H_a .



Power of a Test

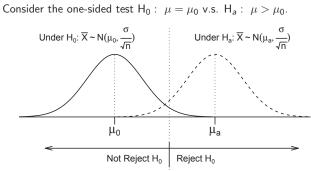
Consider the one-sided test H_0 : $\mu = \mu_0$ v.s. H_a : $\mu > \mu_0$.



H₀ is rejected at level α if the test statistic $z = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu_0}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} > z_{\alpha}$, or equivalently if the sample mean $\overline{X} > \mu_0 + z_{\alpha} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$.





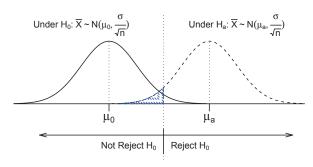


H₀ is rejected at level α if the test statistic $z = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu_0}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} > z_{\alpha}$, or equivalently if the sample mean $\overline{X} > \mu_0 + z_{\alpha} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$.

Lecture 21 - 9

Power of a Test

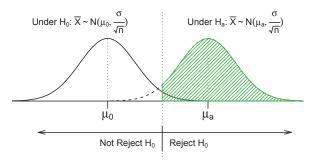
Consider the one-sided test H_0 : $\mu = \mu_0$ v.s. H_a : $\mu > \mu_0$.

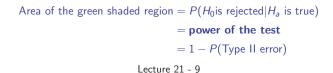


Area of the blue shaded region = $P(\text{fail to reject } H_0|H_a \text{ is true})$ = P(Type II error)

Power of a Test

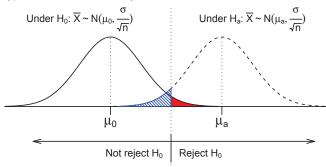
Consider the one-sided test H_0 : $\mu = \mu_0$ v.s. H_a : $\mu > \mu_0$.





Trade-off Between Type I and Type II Errors

We wish to minimize both the chances to make type I error and type II error. Unfortunately, there is a trade-off.



Whenever we reduce P(Type I error) (area of the red filled region), P(Type II error) (area of the blue shaded region) is increased, and vice versa.

Lecture 21 - 10

We wish to minimize both the chances to make type I error and

Under H_a: $\overline{X} \sim N(\mu_a, \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}})$

μa

Reject H₀

Whenever we reduce P(Type I error) (area of the red filled region),

P(Type II error) (area of the blue shaded region) is increased, and vice

Lecture 21 - 10

Trade-off Between Type I and Type II Errors

type II error. Unfortunately, there is a trade-off.

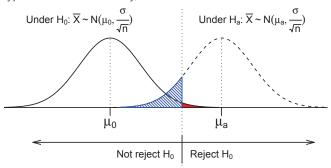
 μ_0

Not reject H₀

Under H₀: $\overline{X} \sim N(\mu_0, \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}})$

Trade-off Between Type I and Type II Errors

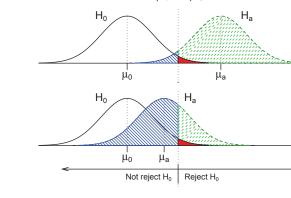
We wish to minimize both the chances to make type I error and type II error. Unfortunately, there is a trade-off.



Whenever we reduce P(Type I error) (area of the red filled region), P(Type II error) (area of the blue shaded region) is increased, and vice versa.

Lecture 21 - 10

The Smaller the Difference $\mu_a - \mu_0$, The Less the Power



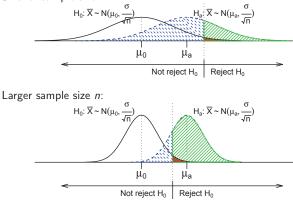
If μ_a is closer to μ_0 , the two densities overlap more. The significance level (red region) can be maintained at α , at the cost of **increased Type II error** (blue region) and **less power** (red + green region).

Lecture 21 - 11

The Larger the Sample Size, the More the Power



versa.



The larger the sample size *n*, the more concentrate the distribution of the sample mean \overline{X} , and the larger the power. Lecture 21 - 12

Ways to Increase the Power

- Increase α. A 5% test of significance will have a greater chance of rejecting H₀ than a 1% test because the strength of evidence required for rejection is less.
- Consider a particular μ_a that is farther away from μ₀. Values of μ that are in H_a but lie close to the hypothesized value μ₀ are harder to detect than values of μ that are far from μ₀.
- Increase the sample size n. More data will provide more information about µ so we have a better chance of distinguishing values of µ.
- Decrease σ. Improving the precision of measurements and restricting attention to a subpopulation are two common ways to decrease σ.

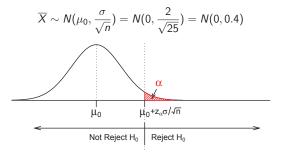
Example: Does Exercise Make Strong Bones?

Can a 6-month exercise program increase the total body bone mineral content (TBBMC) of young women? A team of researchers is planning a study to examine this question.

- Based on the results of a previous study, they are willing to assume that σ = 2 for the percent change in TBBMC over the 6-month period.
- ► A 1% change in TBBMC would be considered important
- ▶ What is the chance of detecting a change of 1% or larger with a sample size of 25? Use $\alpha = 0.05$.

Example – Power Computation (1)

Let μ denote the mean percent change. Under $H_0: \mu=\mu_0=0,$ we have



For a one-sided test, we will reject H_0 at level $\alpha = 0.05$ if

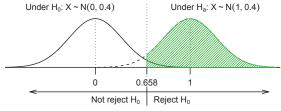
$$\overline{X} > \mu_0 + z_\alpha \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} = 0 + 1.645 \frac{2}{\sqrt{25}} = 0.658.$$

Lecture 21 - 15

Lecture 21 - 14

Example – Power Computation (2)

- As a 1% change in TBBMC would be considered important, we consider the power of the test at H_a : µ_a = 1.
- ► Under H_a: X̄ ~ N(μ_a, σ/√n) = N(1, 2/√25) = N(1, 0.4), so the power is the area of the shaded region below.



• The cutoff 0.658 has a *z*-score of $\frac{0.658 - 1}{0.4} = -0.855$. From the normal table we see the area corresponds to z = -0.855 is about 0.1963. So the power is1 - 0.1963 = 0.8037.

Lecture 21 - 16