# On some assumptions of Null Hypothesis Statistical Testing (NHST)

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# Outline



- 2 The classical statistical model
- 3 Hypothesis testing
- 4 P-value definition and its limitations
- 5 An alternative measure of evidence and some of its properties
- 6 Numerical illustration
  - 7 Final remarks
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- to discuss the classical statistical model and statistical hypotheses,
- to present some **limitations of the classical p-value** with numerical examples,
- to introduce **an alternative measure of evidence**, called s-value, that overcomes some limitations of the p-value.

# The classical statistical model

The classical statistical model is:

 $(\Omega, \mathcal{F}, \mathcal{P}),$ 

where:

- $\Omega$  is the space of possible experiment outcomes,
- $\mathcal{F}$  is a  $\sigma$ -field of  $\Omega$ ,
- $\mathcal{P}$  is a family of non-random probability measures that **possibly** explain the experiment outcomes.

**Remark:** a random vector Z is a measurable function from  $(\Omega, \mathcal{F})$  to  $(\mathcal{Z}, \mathcal{B})$ 

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# A particular model

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**Conditional**, **marginal** and **joint** distributions can be used to make inferences about  $\gamma$ .

Take  $\mathcal{P} = \{P_0\}$  and build your joint probability  $P_0$  from: •  $\gamma \sim f_0(\cdot)$  (with no unknown constants), •  $X|\gamma \sim f_1(\cdot|\gamma)$ Now, you are ready to be a hard core **Bayesian**!

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The positive claim can be written by means of a null hypothesis:

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(or simply 
$$H_0: "P \in \mathcal{P}_0"$$
)

Under a parametric model, there exists a finite dimensional set  $\boldsymbol{\Theta}$  such that:

• 
$$\mathcal{P} \equiv \{ \boldsymbol{P}_{\boldsymbol{\theta}} : \ \boldsymbol{\theta} \in \boldsymbol{\Theta} \}$$
, where  $\boldsymbol{\Theta} \subseteq \mathbb{R}^p$ ,  $p < \infty$ ,

•  $H_0: \theta \in \Theta_0$ , where  $\Theta_0 \subset \Theta$  and  $\mathcal{P}_0 \equiv \{P_\theta: \ \theta \in \Theta_0\}$ .

# Alternative hypotheses

According to Fisher, the negation of  $H_0$  cannot be expressed in terms of probability measures.

<sup>1</sup>since they would be mutually exclusive and exhaustive  $\langle \sigma \rangle \langle z \rangle \langle z \rangle \langle z \rangle$ 

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According to Fisher, the negation of  $H_0$  cannot be expressed in terms of probability measures.

The alternative hypothesis  $H_1$  makes sense if we are **certain** about the family  $\mathcal{P}$ :  $H_1 : P \in (\mathcal{P} - \mathcal{P}_0)$ .

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In the last context, we can **choose**<sup>1</sup> between  $H_0$  and  $H_1$  — Neyman and Pearson approach.

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A classical statistician may also test Bayesian hypotheses. Rather than p-values, they would use estimated conditional probabilities.

# P-value definition

The p-value for testing the classical null hypothesis  $H_0$  is defined as follows

$$p(\mathcal{P}_0, x) = \sup_{P \in \mathcal{P}_0} P(T_{H_0}(X) > T_{H_0}(x))$$

where  $T_{H_0}$  is a statistic such that the more discrepant is  $H_0$  from x, the larger is its observed value.<sup>2</sup>

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 $p(\mathcal{P}_0, x) \approx 0$  indicates that the best case in  $H_0$  provides a small probability to more "extreme events" than the observed one.

<sup>2</sup>i.e.,  $T_{H_0}$  could be  $-2\log$  of the likelihood-ratio statistice  $(a,b,c) = -2\log (a,b)$ 

#### P-value limitations

Consider two null hypotheses  $H_0$ : " $P \in \mathcal{P}_0$ " and  $H'_0$ : " $P \in \mathcal{P}'_0$ " such that  $H_0 \implies H'_0$ . Then, we would expect that:



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But it is not always the case!

The previous p-value **is not monotone** over the set of null hypotheses/Sets.

#### Example: Bivariate Normal distribution

Let  $X = (X_1, \ldots, X_n)$  be a sample from a bivariate normal distribution with mean vector  $\boldsymbol{\mu} = (\mu_1, \mu_2)^{\top}$  and identity variance matrix.

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• under 
$$H_0': \mu_1 = \mu_2$$
 is

$$T_{H'_0}(X) = \frac{n}{2}(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2)^2 \sim \chi_1^2,$$

where  $\bar{X} = (\bar{X}_1, \bar{X}_2)^{ op}$  is the maximum likelihood estimator for

$$\mu$$
.

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#### P-values do not respect monotonicity

| Observed sample          |                         | $H_0: \boldsymbol{\mu} = \boldsymbol{0}$ | $H_0':\mu_1=\mu_2$ |
|--------------------------|-------------------------|--|--------------------|
| $(\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2)$ | $\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2$ | p-value                                  | p-value            |
| (0.05,-0.05)             | 0.1                     | 0.9753                                   | 0.8231             |
| (0.09,-0.11)             | 0.2                     | 0.9039                                   | 0.6547             |
| (0.14,-0.16)             | 0.3                     | 0.7977                                   | 0.5023             |
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# Level curves (contour curves)

Significance level 10%



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On some assumptions of NHST

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# An alternative measure of evidence (parametric case)

In what follows, we present an alternative measure called **s-value** to overcome the previous issue (Patriota, 2013, FSS, 233).

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The s-value is a function  $s:2^\Theta\times\mathcal{X}\to[0,1]$  such that

$$s(\Theta_0, x) = \begin{cases} \sup\{\alpha \in (0, 1) : \Lambda_{\alpha}(x) \cap \Theta_0 \neq \emptyset\}, & \text{if } \Theta_0 \neq \emptyset, \\ 0, & \text{if } \Theta_0 = \emptyset. \end{cases}$$

where  $\Lambda_{\alpha}$  is a confidence set for  $\theta$  with confidence level  $1-\alpha$  with some "nice" properties.
#### Interpretation

**Interpretation:**  $s = s(\Theta_0, x)$  is the largest significance level  $\alpha$  (or 1 - s is the smallest confidence level  $1 - \alpha$ ) for which the confidence set and the set  $\overline{\Theta_0}$  have at least one element in common.

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Large values of s indicate that **there exists at least one** element in  $\Theta_0$  close to the center of  $\Lambda_{\alpha}$  (e.g., close to the ML estimate).

Small values of s indicate that **ALL** elements of  $\Theta_0$  are far away from the center of  $\Lambda_{\alpha}$ .

An alternative measure of evidence and some of its properties

### Graphical illustration: $s_1 = s(\Theta_1, x)$



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An alternative measure of evidence and some of its properties

### Graphical illustration: $s_2 = s(\Theta_2, x)$



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$$\ \, \bullet \ \, s(\varnothing,x)=0 \ \, {\rm and} \ \, s(\Theta,x)=1, \ \,$$

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 $\textbf{ Sor any } \Theta_1, \Theta_2 \subseteq \Theta, \ s(\Theta_1 \cup \Theta_2, x) = \max\{s(\Theta_1, x), s(\Theta_2, x)\},$ 

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## Decisions about $H_0$

Let  $\Phi$  be a function such that:

$$\Phi(\Theta_0) = \langle s(\Theta_0), s(\Theta_0^c) \rangle.$$

Then,

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$$\Phi(\Theta_0) = \langle 1, b \rangle \implies \text{acceptance of } H_0 \text{ if } b \text{ is "small" enough.}$$
  
$$\Phi(\Theta_0) = \langle 1, 1 \rangle \implies \text{total ignorance about } H_0.$$

Image: Image:

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An alternative measure of evidence and some of its properties

# How to find the thresholds for a and b to decide about $H_0$ ?

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or *via* frequentist criteria by employing the following asymptotic property:

**Property:** If the statistical model is regular and the confidence region is built from a statistics  $T_{\theta}(X)$  that converges in distribution to  $\chi_k^2$ , then:

$$s_a = 1 - F_k(F_{H_0}^{-1}(1 - p_a)),$$

where  $p_a = 1 - F_{H_0}(t)$  is the asymptotic p-value to test  $H_0$ .

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The confidence set  $\Lambda_{\alpha}$  is given by

$$\Lambda_{\alpha}(x) = \{ \mu \in \mathbb{R}^2 : \ T_{\mu}(x) \le F_2^{-1}(1-\alpha) \},\$$

where  $F_2$  is the cumulative chi-squared distribution with two degrees of freedom.

| Observed sample          |                         | $H_0: \boldsymbol{\mu} = \boldsymbol{0}$ | $H'_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$ |         |
|--------------------------|-------------------------|--|-----------------------|---------|
| $(\bar{x}_1, \bar{x}_2)$ | $\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2$ | p/s-value                                | p-value               | s-value |
| (0.05,-0.05)             | 0.1                     | 0.9753                                   | 0.8231                | 0.9753  |
| (0.09,-0.11)             | 0.2                     | 0.9039                                   | 0.6547                | 0.9048  |
| (0.14,-0.16)             | 0.3                     | 0.7977                                   | 0.5023                | 0.7985  |
| (0.19,-0.21)             | 0.4                     | 0.6697                                   | 0.3711                | 0.6703  |
| (0.23,-0.27)             | 0.5                     | 0.5331                                   | 0.2636                | 0.5353  |
| (0.28,-0.32)             | 0.6                     | 0.4049                                   | 0.1797                | 0.4066  |
| (0.33,-0.37)             | 0.7                     | 0.2926                                   | 0.1175                | 0.2938  |
| (0.37,-0.43)             | 0.8                     | 0.2001                                   | 0.0736                | 0.2019  |
| (0.42,-0.48)             | 0.9                     | 0.1308                                   | 0.0442                | 0.1320  |
| (0.47,-0.53)             | 1.0                     | 0.0813                                   | 0.0253                | 0.0821  |

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| Observed sample      |                         | $H_0: \boldsymbol{\mu} = \boldsymbol{0} \qquad H'_0: \boldsymbol{\mu}$ |         | $_{1} = \mu_{2}$ |
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| Observed sample          |                         | $H_0: \mu$ | = 0  | $H_0': \mu_1 = \mu_2$ |         |
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## Graphical illustration: $s({\mu_1 = \mu_2}, x_1) = 0.9753$



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On some assumptions of NHST

## Graphical illustration: $s({\mu_1 = \mu_2}, x_2) = 0.9048$



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## Graphical illustration: $s({\mu_1 = \mu_2}, x_3) = 0.7985$



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## Graphical illustration: $s({\mu_1 = \mu_2}, x_4) = 0.6703$



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## Graphical illustration: $s({\mu_1 = \mu_2}, x_5) = 0.5353$



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## Graphical illustration: $s({\mu_1 = \mu_2}, x_6) = 0.4066$



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## Graphical illustration: $s({\mu_1 = \mu_2}, x_7) = 0.2938$



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## Graphical illustration: $s({\mu_1 = \mu_2}, x_8) = 0.2019$



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## Graphical illustration: $s({\mu_1 = \mu_2}, x_9) = 0.1320$



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On some assumptions of NHST

## Graphical illustration: $s({\mu_1 = \mu_2}, x_{10}) = 0.0821$



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## Final remarks

The s-value:

- can be applied directly whenever the log-likelihood function is concave by the formula  $s = 1 F(F_{H_0}(1-p))$
- is a possibilistic measure and can be studied by means of the Abstract belief Calculus ABC (Darwiche, Ginsberg, 1992).
- can be justified by *desiderata* (more basic axioms).
- avoids the p-value problem of non-monotonicity.
- is a classic alternative to the FBST (Pereira, Stern, 1998).
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