

# Lecture Notes Week 8 MSE-213

## 1] Recap: How to choose a test:

Ask yourself: - 1 sample vs a number ( $n_0$ ) or 2 samples compared to each other?

- Is  $\sigma$  known or  $N_s$  very large?  $\rightarrow$  z test

- One-sided ("larger", "heavier", "faster", "smaller", ...) or two-sided ("different")?

Note: The "significance"  $\alpha = 1 - P$ , where  $P$  is the "confidence". Often  $P = 95\%$ ,  $\alpha = 5\%$  or  $P = 99\%$ ,  $\alpha = 1\%$ .

• For every cumulative distribution function  $CDF(x) = F(x) = \int_{-\infty}^x p(t) dt$  we have  $\frac{\partial F}{\partial x} \geq 0$  because probabilities can only be  $\geq 0$ .

This means we can compare some  $P_{TARGET}$  to a  $P$ , or the "score" (i.e. z-value or t-value) directly.

## 2] Overview of tests so far:

### 1-Sample Gauss/z-test:

•  $\sigma$  known, or  $N_s$  is "large", typically  $N_s > 30$  is fine.

$$z = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{\sigma / \sqrt{N_s}} \quad \text{some target value}$$

• One-sided:  $\Phi(z) \geq P$  or  $\Phi(-z) \geq P$  is the criterion

• Two-sided:  $2\Phi(|z|) - 1 \geq P$ . Find  $\Phi(z)$  in table.

Note:  $\frac{\partial \Phi(z)}{\partial z} > 0$  so "Bigger z means bigger P"

### 2-Sample Gauss/z-test

• 2 independent samples (X and Y)

•  $\sigma_x$  and  $\sigma_y$  known (or  $N_{sx}$  and  $N_{sy}$  very large)

$$z = \frac{\bar{x} - \bar{y}}{\sqrt{\sigma_x^2 / N_{sx} + \sigma_y^2 / N_{sy}}}$$

• Limits:  $N_{sx} \rightarrow \infty$ :  $z = \frac{\bar{x} - \bar{y}}{\sigma_y / \sqrt{N_{sy}}}$ ;  $\sigma_x = \sigma_y = \sigma$ ,  $N_{sy} = N_{sx} = N_s$ :  $z = \frac{\bar{x} - \bar{y}}{\sqrt{2} \sigma / \sqrt{N_s}}$

## 1-sample t-test / Student's test

•  $\sigma$  is not known and estimated from the unbiased  $s$  (i.e. with  $\frac{1}{n-1}$ )

$$t = \frac{\bar{X} - \bar{Y}}{s / \sqrt{N_s}} \quad df = \nu = N_s - 1 \text{ "degrees of freedom"}$$

• Find  $CDF(t, \nu) = \mathcal{T}(t, \nu)$  in table, otherwise same as with the z-test.

• Note:  $\frac{\partial \mathcal{T}(t, \nu)}{\partial t} > 0$  and  $\frac{\partial \mathcal{T}(t, \nu)}{\partial \nu} > 0$  for  $t > 0$

## 2-sample t-test / Student's t-test.

• 2 independent samples  $x, y$ .

• We know or assume  $\sigma_x = \sigma_y \equiv \sigma$  and estimate  $\sigma$  from

the "pooled" unbiased std. dev  $s = \sqrt{\frac{1}{(N_{sx}-1) + (N_{sy}-1)} \left( \sum_{i=1}^{N_{sx}} (x_i - \bar{x})^2 + \sum_{i=1}^{N_{sy}} (y_i - \bar{y})^2 \right)}$

$$t = \frac{\bar{x} - \bar{y}}{\sqrt{s^2 / N_{sx} + s^2 / N_{sy}}} \quad (N_{sx} \text{ can be } \neq N_{sy})$$

•  $df = \nu = (N_{sx} - 1) + (N_{sy} - 1) = N_{TOTAL} - 2$

## 3] 2-sample Welch / Behrens - Fisher test (new)

• 2 independent samples  $x, y$ .

•  $\sigma_x$  can be different from  $\sigma_y$ , each is estimated from  $s_x$  and  $s_y$  resp.

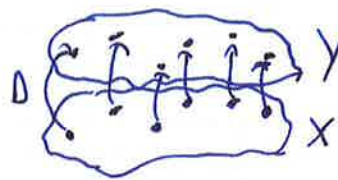
$$t = \frac{\bar{x} - \bar{y}}{\sqrt{s_x^2 / N_{sx} + s_y^2 / N_{sy}}}$$

$$df = \nu = \text{round} \left\{ \left( \frac{s_x^2}{N_{sx}} + \frac{s_y^2}{N_{sy}} \right)^2 / \left( \frac{(s_x^2 / N_{sx})^2}{N_{sx} - 1} + \frac{(s_y^2 / N_{sy})^2}{N_{sy} - 1} \right) \right\}$$

↑  
round to nearest integer

• Limits:  $N_{sx} \rightarrow \infty \quad \nu = N_{sy} - 1$ ;  $\frac{s_x = s_y}{N_{sx} = N_{sy}} \quad \nu = 2(N_s - 1) = N_{TOTAL} - 2$

## 4) The paired/differential 2-sample test



For example, we measure 25 babies' weight at birth ( $x$ ) and one week later ( $y$ ). We can just compare  $\bar{x}, s_x$  with  $\bar{y}, s_y$ . But maybe we are just interested in "how much weight does a baby gain in 1 week"?

Then it makes more sense to look at the pairwise difference first i.e.  $d_1 = y_1 - x_1$  etc. (where  $x_n$  and  $y_n$  are the weight of the same baby before and after 1 week).

We then treat  $D$  as a random variable, with  $\bar{D}$  and  $\sigma_D$  and  $N_D$  where  $N_D$  is the number of pairs (i.e. 25 here).

$D$  might have a much ~~smaller~~ smaller  $\sigma_D$  than the original  $\sigma_x$ , so it is often a way to get better data.

We then proceed with  $D$  as before e.g. a  $t$ -test with  $t = \frac{\bar{D} - \mu_0}{\sigma_D / \sqrt{N_D}}$

Here often we may have  $\mu_0 = 0$  ("did the babies get heavier"), but it could also be  $\mu_0 = 100g$  ("did they gain more than 100g").

→ Whenever possible, try to engineer a paired test e.g. measure the same pieces of steel before/after annealing, the velocity of cars before/after entering a tunnel by tracking the same car, ~~the~~ the efficiency of the same photodiode in  $D$  magnetic field or some magnetic field...

# 5 The $\chi^2$ ("chi-2 / chi-squared") test.

- We have some data - can they be described by some probability distribution function (PDF)?
- Need discrete data / PDF. Otherwise, discretize the data, i.e. chose bins. For distributions such as a normal distribution, we need a bin for  $-\infty$  to some number, and some number to  $+\infty$ .

Example: Null Hypothesis  $H_0$ : "We have fair dice" (our friend doesn't cheat)

$$H_0: p_1 = p_2 = p_3 = p_4 = p_5 = p_6 = \frac{1}{6} \quad (\text{Note: } \sum_i p_i = 1)$$

We throw 60 times and count the number for each possible out come. Make a table:

Out come $x_i$	.	..	...	::	:::	...
Probability $p_i$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{6}$
Absolute Frequency $n_i$	12	9	11	8	10	10
Relative Frequency $f_i$	$\frac{1}{5}$	$\frac{3}{20}$	$\frac{11}{60}$	$\frac{2}{15}$	$\frac{1}{6}$	$\frac{1}{6}$
$f_i = n_i / N_s$						

Sample size  $N_s = 60$ . Number of possible outcomes:  $K = 6$

We define a measure that tells us "how much do we deviate from the expectation values of this PDF":

$$\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^K \frac{(n_i - N_s \cdot p_i)^2}{N_s p_i} = \sum_{i=1}^K N_s \frac{(f_i - p_i)^2}{p_i}$$

↑ useful for computing

↑ useful for understanding:

- bigger  $N_s$ : same relative deviation is a bigger "problem", statistically
- smaller  $p$  events get weighted more.

Example:

$$\chi^2 = \frac{(12-10)^2}{10} + \frac{(9-10)^2}{10} + \dots$$

$$= \frac{4}{10} + \frac{1}{10} + \frac{1}{10} + \frac{4}{10} + \frac{0}{10} + \frac{0}{10} = \underline{\underline{10/10 = 1}}$$

The degrees of freedom, given that we impose a PDF with no free parameters are  $df = \nu = K - 1$  (Example  $\nu = 5$ )

$\chi^2 = 0$  means "we get exactly the expectation values for each possible event"  $\chi^2 \gg 0$  always.  
 $\chi^2 \gg 0$  means "this outcome is unlikely to occur for this probability distribution"

Then use a  $\chi^2$  table (with  $\chi^2$  and  $df$ ) to get the corresponding probability. We can reject the null hypothesis if  $\chi^2$  is too large.

For example with  $\nu = 5$  (as in our example), if  $\chi^2 \gg 11.07$ , we can reject the null hypothesis with 95% confidence (5% significance).

In our example  $\chi^2 = 1$  so we cannot claim the die is not fair.

For the  $\chi^2$  test to be a good approximation, the ~~est~~ expectation value in each outcome/bin cannot be too small.

As a rule of thumb, we require:  $N_s \cdot \min(p_i) \gg 5$ .

outcome will  
the smallest  
probability

In our example we have  $N_s \cdot \frac{1}{6} = 10$ .

This also implies  $N_s \gg k$ .

If we estimate ~~the~~ <sup>some</sup> parameters of the PDF from our data, the number of degrees of freedom reduces by that number.

For example, if we assume a Gaussian PDF and estimate  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$

from  $\bar{x}$  and  $s$ , the degrees of freedom ( $\nu$ ) are reduced by 2.