# STAT 234 Lecture 18B The General Framework of Hypothesis Testing Section 9.1

Yibi Huang Department of Statistics University of Chicago Dogs Can Smell Cancer | Secret Life of Dogs | BBC

https://youtu.be/e0UK6kkS0\_M

## Case Study: Can Dogs Smell Bladder Cancer?

- A study<sup>1</sup> by M. Willis et al. considered whether dogs could be trained to detect if a person has bladder cancer by smelling his/her urine.
- 6 dogs of varying breeds were trained to discriminate between urine from patients with bladder cancer and urine from control patients without it.
- The dogs were taught to indicate which among several specimens was from the bladder cancer patient by lying beside it.
- Once trained, the dogs' ability to distinguish cancer patients from controls was tested using urine samples from subjects not previously encountered by the dogs.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Olfactory detection of human bladder cancer by dogs: proof of principle study, *British Medical Journal*, vol. 329, September 25, 2004.

## Case Study: Can Dogs Smell Bladder Cancer?

- Neither the dog handlers nor the experimental observers knew the identity of urine samples so the dogs couldn't get clue
- Each of the 6 dogs was tested with 9 trials. In each trial, one urine sample from a bladder cancer patient was randomly placed among 6 control urine samples.
- Outcome: In the total of 54 trials with the 6 dogs, the dogs made the correct selection 22 times.
  - The dogs were correct for  $22/54 \approx 41\%$  of the time,
    - not fabulous
  - If the dogs just guessed at random, they were only expected to be correct for  $1/7\approx 14\%$  of the time
  - Is this difference (41% v.s. 14%) surprising?

Let p be the probability that a dog makes the correct selection on a given trial.

• Null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ): p = 1/7

"There is nothing going on."

The dogs just guessed at random.

- "null" means "nothing surprising is going on".
- The dogs were just lucky to make more correct selections than expected.

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- The dogs were just lucky to make more correct selections than expected.
- Alternative hypothesis ( $H_A$  or  $H_1$ ): p > 1/7

"There is something going on."

Dogs can do better than random guessing.

## Weighing Evidence Using a Test Statistic

The next step of hypothesis testing is to weigh the evidence — how likely to observed the data obtained if  $H_0$  was true?

• If the observed result was very unlikely to have occurred under the H<sub>0</sub>, then the evidence raises more than a reasonable doubt in our minds about the H<sub>0</sub>.

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The *test statistic* is a summary of the data that best reflects the evidence for or against the hypotheses.

· For this study, the test statistics we choose is

X = the number of correct guesses in the 54 trials

- The larger X, the stronger evidence for  $H_A$  and against  $H_0$
- The smaller X, the stronger evidence for H<sub>0</sub> and against H<sub>A</sub>

#### Distribution of the Test Statistics Under H<sub>0</sub>

For the "Dogs Smell Cancer" study, if H<sub>0</sub> is true, then

$$X \sim Bin(n = 54, p = 1/7)$$
 (Why?)

which implies

$$P(X=k) = {\binom{54}{k}} {\left(\frac{1}{7}\right)^k} {\left(\frac{6}{7}\right)^{54-k}}, \quad k=0,1,2,\dots,54.$$



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- 1. a test statistic
- 2. a rejection region

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How to choose the cutoff value k for the rejection region?

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		fail to reject $H_0$	reject H <sub>0</sub>
Truth	H <sub>0</sub> true		
	H <sub>A</sub> true		





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• A *Type I Error* is rejecting the  $H_0$  when it is true.

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	H <sub>A</sub> true	Type II Error	$\checkmark$

- A *Type I Error* is rejecting the  $H_0$  when it is true.
- A *Type II Error* is failing to reject the  $H_0$  when it is false.

### Significance Level $\alpha = P(\text{Type I error})$

The *significance level*  $\alpha$  of a test procedure is its probability to reject the null hypothesis H<sub>0</sub> when H<sub>0</sub> is true.

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For the "Dog Smell Cancer" Study, if the test procedure is rejecting H<sub>0</sub> if  $X \ge 15$ , the significance level would be

 $\alpha = P(\text{Type I error}) = P(\text{H}_0 \text{ is rejected when H}_0 (p = 1/7) \text{ is true})$  $= P(X \ge 15 \text{ when } X \sim Bin(n = 54, p = 1/7))$  $= \sum_{k=15}^{54} {\binom{54}{k}} {\binom{1}{7}}^k {\binom{6}{7}}^{54-k} \approx 0.0073$ 

sum(dbinom(15:54, size = 54, p = 1/7))
[1] 0.007288514

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If we reject  $H_0$  when  $X \ge 15$ , there is a chance of 0.0073 to falsely reject a correct  $H_0$  (Type I error).

For the test procedure: rejecting  $H_0$  when  $X \ge k$ , the chance of making a Type I error is

 $P(\text{Type I error}) = P(\text{H}_0 \text{ is rejected when H}_0 (p = 1/7) \text{ is true})$ =  $P(X \ge k \text{ when } X \sim Bin(n = 54, p = 1/7))$ 

$$= \sum_{x=k}^{54} \binom{54}{k} \binom{1}{7}^{x} \binom{6}{7}^{54-x} \approx \begin{cases} 0.14 & \text{if } k = 11\\ 0.076 & \text{if } k = 12\\ 0.038 & \text{if } k = 13\\ 0.017 & \text{if } k = 14\\ 0.007 & \text{if } k = 15 \end{cases}$$

## Setting Rejection Region Based on the Significance Level

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To determine the cutoff value k for the rejection region  $\{X \ge k\}$ , we can first choose a *significance level*  $\alpha$ , which is *the maximal*  $P(Type \ I \ error)$  we can tolerate, and then choose the cutoff value so that P(Type I error) does not exceeds the significance level  $\alpha$ .

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- If we can tolerate a α = 5% chance of Type I error, the test procedure can be "rejecting H<sub>0</sub> if X ≥ 13"
- If we can tolerate a α = 1% chance of Type I error, the test procedure can be "rejecting H<sub>0</sub> if X ≥ 15"

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Suppose the sample size is fixed and a test statistic is chosen, choosing a rejection region with a smaller P(Type I error) would lead to a larger P(Type II error).

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- The P-value is a probability, and thus it's between 0 and 1
- This probability is calculated *assuming the H*<sub>0</sub> *is true*.
- To determine the *P*-value, we must first decide which values of the test statistic are the evidence for H<sub>A</sub> to be stronger than or as as the value obtained from our sample

#### Example (Dogs Smell Cancer) — P-Value



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- Observed X = 22
- Evidence for  $H_A$  is stronger than or as strong as the observed X = 22 if  $X \ge 22$
- Under  $H_0$ ,  $X \sim Bin(n = 54, p = 1/7)$

*P*-value = 
$$P(X \ge 22 \mid H_0) = \sum_{k=22}^{54} {\binom{54}{k}} \left(\frac{1}{7}\right)^k \left(\frac{6}{7}\right)^{54-k} \approx 1.86 \times 10^{-6}$$

sum(dbinom(22:54,54,1/7))
[1] 1.861522e-06

The smaller the *P*-value, the stronger the evidence against the  $H_0$ .

 A P-value of 0.25 says that if the H<sub>0</sub> was true, then we would obtain a result like the observed data 1 in 4 of the time; ⇒ the data look consistent with H<sub>0</sub>

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For the dogs study, if the dogs just guessed at random, there is less than 2 out of 1 million chance to be correct 22 or more times in 54 trials

 The observed result was very unlikely to have occurred under the H<sub>0</sub> — strong evidence to disbelieve H<sub>0</sub>. As an alternative to test procedures based on rejection regions, one can use test procedures based on *P*-values

- 1. Select a significance level  $\alpha$  (as before, the desired P(type I error)).
- 2. Then
  - reject  $H_0$  if the *P*-value  $\leq \alpha$
  - do not reject H<sub>0</sub> if the *P*-value > α

### "Rejection Region" and "P-value" Approaches Are Equivalent

Using the Dogs study example, for a chosen significance level  $\alpha$ , the rejection rejection { $X \ge k$ } must satisfy

 $P(X \ge k) \le \alpha$  and  $P(X \ge k - 1) > \alpha$ ,

If the observed test statistic is  $X = x_0$ , the *P*-value would be

P-value =  $P(X \ge x_0)$ 

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P-value =  $P(X \ge x_0)$ 

• If the observed  $X = x_0$  falls in the rejection region  $X \ge k$ , then

P-value =  $P(X \ge x_0) \le P(X \ge k) \le \alpha$  since  $x_0 \ge k$ ,

then H<sub>0</sub> would be rejected by both test procedures.

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If the observed X = x<sub>0</sub> is NOT in the rejection region X ≥ k,
 i.e., x<sub>0</sub> ≤ k − 1, then

 $P\text{-value} = P(X \ge x_0) \ge P(X \ge k - 1) > \alpha \quad \text{since } x_0 \le k - 1,$ 

then H<sub>0</sub> would NOT be rejected by either approach.

The *P*-value is the smallest significance level  $\alpha$  at which the H<sub>0</sub> can be rejected.

• e.g., the *P*-value for the dog study is  $1.86 \times 10^{-6}$ . The H<sub>0</sub> won't be rejected unless the significance level is as small as  $1.86 \times 10^{-6}$ 

Because of this, the *P*-value is alternatively referred to as the *observed significance level* for the data.

When the evidence is not strong enough to reject the  $H_0$ , we say "we *fail to reject* the  $H_0$ " not "we *accept* the  $H_0$ "

• When we fail to reject the H<sub>0</sub>, we might have made a Type II error

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- When we fail to reject the H<sub>0</sub>, we might have made a Type II error
- P(Type II error) can be quite high as it's not controlled.
- Recall so far we've only controlled P(Type I error) by the significance level but haven't taken any measure to control P(Type II error)

If  $H_0$  is rejected, then we can be certain that  $H_0$  is false.

If  $H_0$  is rejected at 5% level, there is less than a 5% chance for  $H_0$  to be true.

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False. Even if  $H_0$  is true, 5% of the time the experiment will give a result with a *P*-value < 5% so that  $H_0$  is rejected.

If  $H_0$  is rejected at 5% level, there is less than a 5% chance for  $H_0$  to be true.

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If  $H_0$  is rejected at 5% level, there is less than a 5% chance for  $H_0$  to be true.

False. A *P*-value does not give the chance of  $H_0$  being true. In fact, the *P*-value is computed assuming  $H_0$  is true.

P-value =  $P(data | H_0 is true)$ , not  $P(H_0 is true | data)$ .

Don't simply report the conclusion of whether  $H_0$  is rejected. Always report the *P*-value

- A *P*-value of 0.04 and a *P*-value of 0.000001 are not at all the same thing, even though H<sub>0</sub> will be rejected at 0.05 level in both cases, but the strength of evidence are very different
- Simply reporting whether H<sub>0</sub> is rejected without *P*-value is like reporting the temperature as "cold" or "hot"
- It's much better to report the *P*-value and let people choose their own significance level, just like telling someone the temperature and let them decide for themselves whether they want to wear a coat

## Conclusion of the Dogs Smell Bladder Cancer Study

- There is strong evidence that dogs have some ability to smell bladder cancer,
- However, the dogs were only correct 40% of the time, too low for practical application
- Another study (M. McCulloch et al., Integrative Cancer Therapies, vol 5, p. 30, 2006.) considered whether dogs could be trained to detect whether a person has lung cancer by smelling the subjects' breath. In one test with 83 Stage I lung cancer samples, the dogs correctly identified the cancer sample 81 times.

## **Recap: Hypothesis Testing Framework**

- 1. We start with a *null hypothesis* (*H*<sub>0</sub>) that represents the status quo.
- 2. We also have an *alternative hypothesis*  $(H_A)$  that represents our research question, i.e. what we're testing for.
- 3. We then collect data and often summarize the data as a *test statistic*, which is usually a measure gauging whether  $H_0$  or  $H_A$  are more plausible
- 4. We then predict what the *test statistic* would be around under the assumption that the H<sub>0</sub> is true.
- 5. If the *test statistic* is too far away from what the  $H_0$  predicts, we then reject the  $H_0$  in favor of the  $H_A$ .

Using the "Rejection Region" Approach,

- 6. we choose a *significance level*  $\alpha$  = maximal P(Type I error) that we can tolerate
- 7. we select the rejection region based on the significance level
- 8. we reject  $H_0$  if the test statistic falls in the rejection region, and do not reject otherwise

Using the "P-value" Approach,

- 6. we calculate the *P*-value based on the test statistic
- 7. (optional) we choose *significance level*  $\alpha$  = maximal P(Type I error) that we can tolerate and reject H<sub>0</sub> if the *P*-value  $\leq \alpha$  and not to reject otherwise.

This lecture just introduces the general framework of hypotheses testing.

In the next several lectures, we will introduce several hypotheses tests for various types of problems.