A Cheap Trick to Improve the Power of a Conservative Hypothesis Test

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DISCLAIMER!



WARNING!!! Presentation contains hypothesis testing and *p*-values



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In no way do the authors of this article advocate for the misuse of *p*-values and/or hypothesis testing. The results presented herein are primarily motivated by the pedagogical findings.

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Some background motivation

In multivariate analysis, the likelihood ratio test for a covariance matrix is based on the following, see Anderson [1],

$\log |\hat{\boldsymbol{\Sigma}}|$

where $\hat{\Sigma}$ is the sample covariance matrix and $|\cdot|$ is the determinant.

► In time series, the goodness-of-fit test of Peña & Rodríguez [2] is

$$\frac{-3n}{2m+1}\log|\hat{\boldsymbol{R}}|$$

where \hat{R} is an $m \times m$ matrix of autocorrelations: $\hat{R}_{i,j} = \hat{\rho}(|i-j|)$.

More recent background:

- Mahdi & McLeod [3] and Robbins & Fisher [4] extend ideas from Peña & Rodríguez [2] to multivariate time series.
- ▶ In Fisher & Robbins [5], we measure the lag *k* autocorrelation matrix in a multivariate time series with:

$$-\log |\boldsymbol{R}_k|$$
 where $\boldsymbol{R}_k = \left[egin{array}{cc} \boldsymbol{I}_d & \hat{\boldsymbol{R}}_k \ \hat{\boldsymbol{R}}_k^T & \boldsymbol{I}_d \end{array}
ight]$

for a *d*-dimensional time series where \hat{R}_k is the autocorrelation matrix at lag k and I_d is a $d \times d$ identity.

The *math* in all these time series applications involves a bunch of linear algebra (Kronecker products, eigenvalues) but ultimately the asymptotic results depend on a few fundamental ideas:

- The determinant value, $|\cdot|$, in all these results is a value in (0, 1).
- ► Some 1st order Taylor expansions.
- ► Fairly basic limiting arguments.

Let $\mathbf{X}_n = \{X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n\}$ be a sample and $T_n = T_n(\mathbf{X}_n)$ denote a statistic for testing the competing hypotheses H_0 and H_1 .

Assume the following:

- (a) T_n is strictly non-negative: $P(T_n \ge 0) = 1$,
- (b) When H_0 is true: $T_n = \mathcal{O}_p(1)$ (likewise, T_n has a limit distribution),
- (c) When H₁ is true: T_n = O_p(n^κ) for some κ > 0; that is, T_n diverges to +∞ at rate n^κ.

For a given statistic T_n satisfying the stated assumptions, consider the modified test statistic:

$$T_n^* = -n^{\kappa} \log(1 - T_n/n^{\kappa}). \tag{1}$$

Theorem

When H_0 is true, $T_n^* \xrightarrow{p} T_n$ as $n \to \infty$; moreover, T_n^* and T_n share the same asymptotic distribution.

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Theorem

When H_1 is true, T_n^* diverges from T_n and will be more powerful than T_n if decisions are based off the same critical values.

Proof of First Theorem: H_0 Theorem

Proof.

Consider

$$\begin{aligned} & \stackrel{\text{T}^*}{n} &= -n^{\kappa} \log(1 - T_n/n^{\kappa}) \\ &= n^{\kappa} \left[\frac{T_n}{n^{\kappa}} + \frac{1}{2} \left(\frac{T_n}{n^{\kappa}} \right)^2 + \frac{1}{3} \left(\frac{T_n}{n^{\kappa}} \right)^3 + \dots \right] \\ &= T_n + \frac{T_n^2}{2n^{\kappa}} + \frac{T_n^3}{3n^{2\kappa}} + \dots \\ &= T_n + A_n. \end{aligned}$$

When H_0 is true, $A_n = \mathcal{O}_p(n^{-\kappa})$ by assumptions (a) and (b).

Whence $T_n^* \xrightarrow{p} T_n$, and T_n^* shares the same asymptotic distribution as T_n .

(2)

Proof.

Recall A_n in (2),

$$A_n = \frac{T_n^2}{2n^{\kappa}} + \frac{T_n^3}{3n^{2\kappa}} + \dots$$

If H_0 is true, $A_n = \mathcal{O}_p(n^{-\kappa})$ (or $A_n \to 0$ for all practical purposes).

If H_1 is true, $0 \le A_n = \mathcal{O}_p(n^{\kappa})$ by assumption (c) (or $A_n \to \infty$ for all practical purposes).

It follows that for all c, $P(T_n^* > c) \ge P(T_n > c)$ and hence T_n^* can offer more power than T_n .

Some (obvious) cautions:

- If T_n has an exact distribution (i.e., *F*-stat satisfies our assumptions but is $F(\nu_1, \nu_2)$ distributed) don't use T_n^* .
- If the asymptotic distribution of T_n produces type I error at the nominal level, or is liberal, using T_n^* will create a liberal statistic or amplify the poor type I error performance.

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But if T_n is conservative in practice:

- T_n^* may result in type I errors closer to the nominal level.
- T_n^* will provide more detection power than T_n .
- T_n^* will diverge from T_n .

Consider testing for significant correlation between two sets of observations, x_i and y_i using Pearson correlation:

$$r = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})(y_i - \bar{y})}{\sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \bar{x})^2} \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (y_i - \bar{y})^2}}.$$

Covered in nearly every introductory statistics course.

If (x_i, y_i) are bivariate Normal, there is the well known result

$$F = r^2 \frac{n-2}{1-r^2} \sim F(\nu_1 = 1, \nu_2 = n-2)$$

and note $F \longrightarrow \chi_1^2$ as $n \to \infty$.

Alternatively we could use the simpler statistic

$$T = nr^2 \sim \chi_1^2$$
, as $n \to \infty$.

T relates to time series goodness-of-fit test an is known to be conservative since it is negatively biased compared to it asymptotic distribution [see Box & Pierce 6, for further details].

Data is generated as:

- x_i are uniform over the interval (1, 20).
- $y_i = 5 + \delta x_i + 3\varepsilon_i$ where,
 - $\varepsilon \sim t(\nu = 3)$,
 - δ acts as a perturbation parameter.

The underlying stochastic distribution (ε terms) are leptokurtic. It is known that normal theory results tend to be conservative [see 7] in such situations, but the *F* test can be justified asymptotically for non-normal data [8].

Using our *trick*, one could also consider the statistics:

$$F^* = -n\log(1 - F/n)$$

and

$$T^* = -n\log(1 - T/n) = -n\log(1 - r^2).$$

For comparison, we also include a bootstrapped version of T denoted as T_B where the y_i terms are resampled with replacement.

Table 1: Rate of rejections at $\alpha = 1\%$, out of 10,000 replications, of *F* statistic based on an F(1, n - 2) distribution, the χ^2 -based test *T*, the transformed T^* and bootstrapped T_B (based on 1,000 resamples) under the null hypothesis at seven sample sizes *n*.

п	25	30	35	40	45	50	100
F	0.8	0.8	0.8	0.9	1.0	0.9	1.1
Т	0.7	0.6	0.7	0.8	0.9	0.8	1.0
T^*	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.2	1.1	1.0	1.2
T_B	0.9	1.1	1.0	1.1	1.2	1.0	1.2

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Simulation - Statistical Power



Figure 2: Power of *F*, *T*, *T*^{*} and *T_B* at $\alpha = 1\%$ under the alternative hypothesis as a function of the perturbation parameter δ for n = 35.

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Simulation - Divergence of Statistics



Figure 3: Mean value of *T* and *T*^{*} under *H*₁ under the alternative hypothesis as a function of perturbation parameter δ for n = 35.

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How to determine κ ?

- The two theorems hold for any $\kappa > 0$.
- Value of T_n^* increases as κ approaches 0.
- Sensitivity study on κ is provided in the article.
- We found setting κ equal to the H_1 rate of divergence yields a test that performs well under both hypotheses.

Comparison to other correction methods

• Compared to multiplicative corrected statistics $T_n^{\dagger} = b_n T_n$.

Discussion on Exact level and UMP tests

- Clearly do not want to use the transformation for exact level tests.
- The transformation cannot improve power on a UMP test.
- Details provided on how the transformation can correct conservative test.
 Connections to education
 - Results rest on Taylor expansions and basic convergence results.
 - Two topics I found students struggle with historically.
 - Mechanism to introduce what it means to be a UMP test, the limits of hypothesis testing and using asymptotic results.
 - Article could be used in an undergraduate Mathematical Statistics class.

- Correlation Example presented here.
- In main article:
 - Change point testing using a CUSUM statistic.
 - Wald statistic in Logistic Regression. (including an application on the Challenger O-ring data)
- ► Additional examples in supplemental code:
 - A likelihood ratio test on Gamma distributed data.
 - A *t*-test and ANOVA *F*-test.
 - Kolmogorov-Smirnov test.

Thanks for the memories JSM!



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Presentation is based on the article

T. J. Fisher and M. W. Robbins, "A cheap trick to improve the power of a conservative hypothesis test," *The American Statistician*, vol. 73, no. 3, pp. 232–242, 2019. DOI: 10.1080/00031305.2017.1395364

Slides and other work can be found

https://tjfisher19.github.io/

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