Hypothesis Tests for One-Sample Means

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- It is entirely possible that we make the right conclusion based on our data... but the wrong conclusion based on the true (unknown) parameter!
- In a criminal court, sometimes people are wrongly convicted. Other times, guilty people are not convicted at all.
- Unlike in the courts, statistics gives us the tools to quantify how often we make these sorts of errors.

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- There are two competing hypotheses: null and alternative.
- In a hypothesis test, we make some statement about which might be true.
- There are four possible scenarios. We can
 - **1** Reject H_0 when H_0 is false.
 - 2 Fail to reject H_0 when H_0 is true.
 - **3** Reject H_0 when H_0 is true (error).
 - **④** Fail to reject H_0 when H_0 is false (error).

Image: A matrix

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Test ConclusionDo not reject H_0 Reject H_0 Truth H_0 trueCorrect DecisionType I Error H_0 falseType II ErrorCorrect Decision

- A **Type 1 Error** is rejecting H_0 when it is actually true.
- A Type 2 Error is failing to reject H_0 when the H_A is actually true.

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Let's think about criminal courts. The null hypothesis is innocence.

- A Type I error is when we decide that a person is guilty, even though they are innocent.
- A Type II error is when we decide that we do not have enough evidence to say that someone is guilty, but they are in fact guilty.

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- The significance level, α , indicates how often the data will lead us to incorrectly reject H_0
- This is how often we commit a Type I error!
- In fact, α is the probability of committing such an error

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

If we use a 95% confidence interval for hypothesis testing and the null is true,

- The significance level is $\alpha = 0.05$.
- We make an error whenever the point estimate is at least 1.96 standard errors away from the population parameter.
- This happens about 5% of the time

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We will start with the situation wherein we know that $X \sim N(\mu, \sigma)$ and the value of σ is known. This $(1 - \alpha)100\%$ confidence interval for μ is

$$\bar{x} \pm z_{\alpha/2} imes rac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

where σ/\sqrt{n} is the SE and $z_{\alpha/2}$ is again the critical value.

Refresher: Section 7.1

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The following n = 5 observations are from a $N(\mu, 2)$ distribution. Find a 90% confidence interval for μ .

Recall that when we say "90% confident", we mean:

• If we draw repeated samples of size 5 from this distribution, then 90% of the time the corresponding intervals will contain the true value of μ .

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- In practice, we typically do not know the population standard deviation σ .
- Instead, we have to estimate this quantity.
- We will use the sample statistic s to estimate σ .
- This strategy works quite well when $n \ge 30$

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This works quite well because we expect large samples to give us precise estimates such that

$$SE = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \approx \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}.$$

When $n \ge 30$ and σ is unknown, a $(1 - \alpha)100\%$ confidence interval for μ is

$$\bar{x} \pm z_{\alpha/2} \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$$

where we've plugged in s for σ .

The average heart rate of a random sample of 60 students is found to be 74 with a standard deviation of 11. Find a 95% confidence interval for the true mean heart rate of the students.

We begin with the setting where $n \ge 30$.

- It is certainly possible to use the confidence interval to complete a hypothesis test.
- However, we also want to be able to use the test statistic and p-value approaches.

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For $n \geq 30$, the test statistic is

$$ts = z = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{s/\sqrt{n}}$$

where again $s/\sqrt{n} \approx \sigma/\sqrt{n}$ because we are using a large sample.

There are five steps to carrying out these hypothesis tests:

- Write out the null and alternative hypotheses.
- **2** Calculate the test statistic.
- **③** Use the significance level to find the critical value

OR

use the test statistic to find the p-value.

Ompare the critical value to the test statistic

OR

compare the p-value to α .

• Conclusion.

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In its native habitat, the average density of giant hogweed is 5 plants per m^2 . In an invaded area, a sample of 50 plants produced an average of 11.17 plants per m^2 with a standard deviation of 8.9. Does the invaded area have a different average density than the native area? Test at the 5% level of significance.

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We now move to the situation where n < 30.

If n < 30 but we are dealing with a normal distribution and σ is known,

$$ts = z = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$$

but we know that this will rarely (if ever) occur in practice!

- With a small sample size, plugging in s for σ can result in some problems.
- Therefore less precise samples will require us to make some changes.
- This brings us to the *t*-distribution.

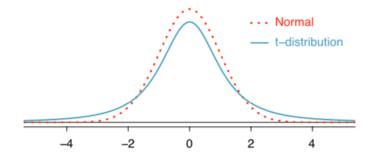
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Image: A matrix

The t-distribution is a symmetric, bell-shaped curve like the normal distribution.



However, the *t*-distribution has more area in the tails.

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The t-distribution:

- Is always centered at zero.
- Has one parameter: degrees of freedom (df).
- For our purposes,

$$df = n - 1$$

where n is our sample size.

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- The parameter df controls how fat the tails are.
- Higher values of *df* result in thinner tails.
 - I.e., larger sample sizes make the *t*-distribution look more normal.
- When $n \ge 30$, the *t*-distribution will be essentially equivalent to the normal distribution.
 - In practice, we often use t-tests even when $n \ge 30$.

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When n < 30 and σ is unknown, we use the *t*-distribution for our confidence intervals. A $(1 - \alpha)100\%$ confidence interval for μ is

$$\bar{x} \pm t_{\alpha/2,df} imes rac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$$

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Let's take a minute to look at the table of t-distribution critical values that we will use.

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The test statistic for the setting where n < 30 and σ is unknown is

$$ts = t = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{s/\sqrt{n}}$$

(two-sided hypotheses)

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The p-value for two-sided hypotheses is then

$$2 \times P(t_{df} < -|ts|)$$

Refresher: Section 7.1

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5.4, 5.3, 5.3, 5.2, 5.4, 4.9, 5.0, 5.2, 5.4

Test at the 5% level of significance if the average cell count is 5.