9.1 Hypothesis Testing

A <u>hypothesis</u> is a statement or a claim about the value of a population parameter. There are two types of hypotheses:

- 1. **null hypothesis** (H_0)- assumed to be true until proven false through the use of sample data
- 2. <u>alternate hypothesis (H_1) -</u> what must be true if Ho is false.

There are 3 types of alternate hypothesis tests:

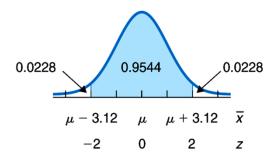
- 1. **2-tailed test-** when Ho must equal a certain value, H_1 is not equal to it.
- 2. **left-tailed test-** when Ho must be at least a certain value, H_1 is less than it.
- 3. **right-tailed test-** when Ho can't be more than a value, H_1 says it must be higher.

example: A new car claims to average 35 mpg for highway driving

 H_0 : $\mu = 35$

 H_1 : $\mu \neq 35$... two-tailed

To test a claim, assume Ho is true and then verify whether \bar{x} is within a certain number of standard deviations of μ . (Is \bar{x} within 2 standard deviations to either side of μ ?)



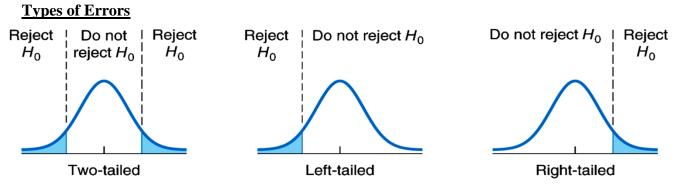
example: One year, the mean energy consumed per U.S. household was 103.6 million British thermal units (BTU). For that same year, 20 randomly selected households in the West had the following energy consumptions, in millions of BTU.

104	80	82	70	84	78	61	65	72	74
94	83	95	76	65	76	69	81	100	84

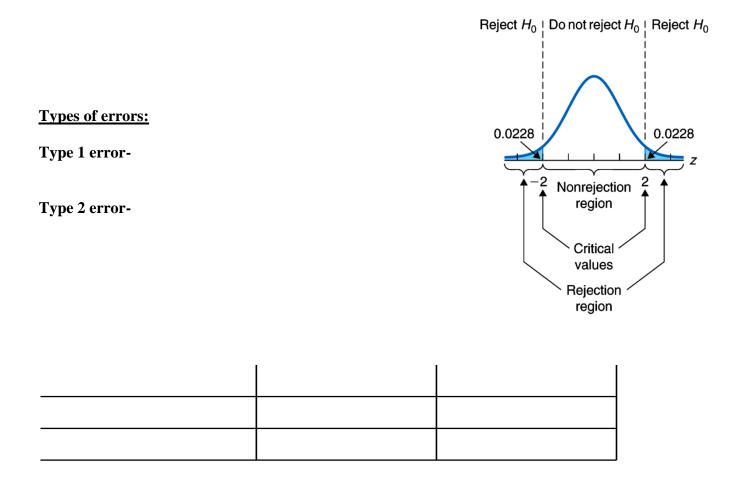
Do the data provide sufficient evidence to conclude that the mean energy consumption by western households differed from that of all U.S. households? Assume that the standard deviation of energy consumptions of all western households was 15 million BTU.

- a) State the null and alternate hypotheses.
- b) Obtain a precise criterion for deciding whether or not to reject the null hypothesis in favor of the alternate hypothesis.

c) Apply your criterion in part (b) to the sample data and state your conclusion.



Graphical display of rejection regions for two-tailed, left-tailed, and right-tailed tests



Probability of Type 1 and Type 2 errors:

- The **significance level** α of a hypothesis test is the probability of making a Type 1 error, rejecting a true null hypothesis.
- β (beta) denotes the probability of making a Type 2 error.
- For a fixed sample size, the smaller the Type 1 error probability, the larger the Type 2 error probability (and vice versa).

There are 2 possible conclusions of a hypothesis test:

- 1. If Ho is rejected, conclude that H₁ is *probably* true (the data seems to suggest that...); or,
- 2. If Ho is **not** rejected, conclude that the data "do not provide sufficient evidence to conclude that < the alternate hypothesis. >"

example: Ten years ago, the mean age of juveniles held in public custody was 16.0 years. The ages of a random sample of juveniles *currently* being held in public custody are to be used to decide whether this year's mean age of all juveniles held in public custody is less than it was 10 years ago. The null and alternate hypotheses for the hypothesis test are:

Ho: $\mu = 16.0$ years

 H_1 : $\mu < 16.0$ years,

where μ is this year's mean age of all juveniles being held in public custody. Explain what each of the following would mean.

- a) a Type 1 error-
- b) a Type 2 error-
- c) a correct decision-

Now suppose the results of carrying out the hypothesis test lead to <u>rejection</u> of the null hypothesis, $\mu = 16.0$ years, that is, to the conclusion $\mu < 16.0$ years. Classify that conclusion by error type or as a correct decision if *in fact* this year's mean age, μ , of all juveniles being held in public custody

- d) is 16.0 years.
- e) is less than 16.0 years.

9.2 - 9.3 Z-Tests and t-Tests for a Mean

Suppose a hypothesis test is to be performed at significance level α . Then the critical values must be chosen so that if Ho is true, the probability is equal to α that the test statistic is in the rejection region.

General Procedure (Classical Approach):

- 1. State H_o and H₁.
- 2. Determine significance level α . (This will usually be given to you.)
- 3. Find the critical values:
 - a) 2-tailed...use $\pm InvNorm\left(\frac{\alpha}{2}\right)$ or $\pm InvT\left(\frac{\alpha}{2}\right)$
 - b) left-tailed... use $InvNorm(\alpha)$ or $InvT(\alpha)$
 - c) right-tailed...use -InvNorm(α) or -InvT(α)
- 4. The value of the test statistic is found when you perform a **Z-test** or **t-Test** (calculator).
- 5. Decide whether to reject H_o. Is the test statistic in the rejection region or the non-rejection region?
- 6. State your conclusion in words. (use statistical doublespeak)

example: In 1987, the mean verbal SAT score was 430 out of 800. Last year a sample of 25 randomly selected scores was taken, yielding the following scores:

346	491	381	420	494	496	360	303	485
289	352	385	434	446	436	378	500	562
479	516	315	558	496	422	615		

At the 10% significance level, have SAT scores improved over the 1987 mean of 430 points?

step 1: Ho:

H₁:

step 2: $\alpha =$

step 3: critical value(s)... classical approach

step 4: test statistic: and (P-value):

step 5: decision:

step 6: conclusion:

Referring to the example above, find and interpret a 90% confidence interval for the mean verbal SAT score last year.

example: A paint manufacturer claims that the average drying time for its new latex paint is 2 hours. To test that claim, the drying times are obtained for 20 randomly selected cans of paint. Here are the drying times, in minutes.

123	109	115	121	130
127	106	120	116	136
131	128	139	110	133
122	133	119	135	109

Do the data provide sufficient evidence to conclude that the mean drying time is greater than the manufacturer's claim of 120 minutes? Use $\alpha = 0.05$.

step 1: Ho:

 H_1 :

step 2: $\alpha = \underline{\hspace{1cm}}$

step 3: critical value(s)... classical approach

step 4: test statistic: and (P-value):

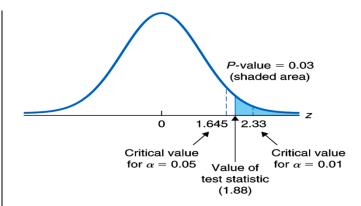
step 5: decision:

step 6: conclusion:

Referring to the example above, find a 90% confidence interval for the mean drying time of this new latex paint.

The **P-value** of a hypothesis test is the observed significance level of a hypothesis test. It is the probability (within the rejection region) to the right or left of the **test statistic**, rather than to the right of the critical value. Therefore, the smaller the **P-value**, the stronger the evidence against the null hypothesis.

Quite often when we reject a null hypothesis, we find that the test statistic is far into the rejection region. The P-value helps denote this, telling the reader of the hypothesis test **just** how strong the rejection actually was.



There are many critics of the 95% hypothesis test. The use of the P-value for a test rather than doing a accept/reject conclusion is gaining popularity in current literature.

Guidelines for using the *P*-value to assess the evidence against the null hypothesis:

- If P-value ≤ 0.01 , reject the null hypothesis. The difference is highly significant.
- If 0.01 < P-value ≤ 0.05 , reject the null hypothesis. The difference is significant.
- If 0.05 < P-value ≤ 0.10 , consider consequences of a type 1 error before rejecting the null hypothesis.
- If P-value > 0.10, do not reject the null hypothesis. The difference is not significant.

Comparison of critical-value and *P*-value approaches:

CRITICAL VALUE APPROACH

- **Step 1:** State the null and alternate hypothesis.
- **Step 2:** Decide on the significance level, α .
- **Step 3:** Determine the critical values. (InvNorm)
- **Step 4:** Compute the value of the test statistic.
- **Step 5:** Determine whether the test statistic falls in the acceptance or rejection region.
- Step 6: State the conclusion in words.

P-VALUE APPROACH

- **Step 1:** State the null and alternate hypothesis.
- **Step 2:** Decide on the significance level, α .
- **Step 3:** Perform hypothesis test and note values of P and α .
- Step 4: If $P \le \alpha$, reject H₀; otherwise do not reject H₀.
- **Step 5:** State the conclusion in words.

9.4 Z-Test for a Proportion

Assumptions: np and n(1-p) both ≥ 10 ,

simple random samples

the population size is at least 20

General Procedure:

- 1. State Ho and H₁.
- 2. Determine significance level α . (This will always be given to you.)
- 3. Find the value of the test statistic and the P-value using your calculator.
- 4. Decide whether to accept or reject Ho based upon P.
- 5. State your conclusion in words.

example: A college is considering construction of a new parking lot because it feels at least 60% of all students drove to campus. If a random sample of n=250 students contains 165 drivers, can the administration's claim be rejected at a 3% level of significance?

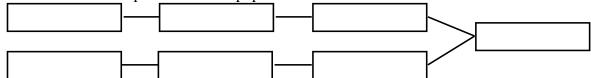
example: A survey of 379 people who viewed the Reagan/Mondale debate resulted in 205 who thought that Mondale won the debate. With 5% significance, can we infer that the **majority** of all registered voters who watched the debate also thought that Mondale did better?

Confidence interval:

Confidence interval:

10.1 & 11.1 Comparing Population Means

Sometimes we wish to compare 2 different populations to make a decision.



example: Let's say that a professor teaches two sections of the same statistics class and wishes to compare their mean class scores. We could use the following hypotheses:

$$H_o$$
: $\mu_1 = \mu_2$
 H_a : $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$

After calculating each sample mean, a criterion needs to be established to determine how great a difference between means is acceptable. To determine the criterion, you must look at the sampling difference between the two means.

There are 3 types of alternate hypotheses

when Ho: $\mu_1 = \mu_2$

a) 2-tailed... $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$ b) left-tailed...

c) right-tailed... $\mu_1 > \mu_2$

 $\mu_1 < \mu_2$

example: The U.S. National Center for Health Statistics compiles data on the length of stay by patients in short-term hospitals and publishes its findings in Vital and Health Statistics. Independent samples of 39 male patients and 35 female patients gave the following data on length of stay, in days.

		Male					Female		
_4	4	12	18	9	14	7	15	1	12
6	12	10	3	6	1	3	7	21	4
15	7	3	13	1	1	5	4	4	3
2	10	13	5	7	5	18	12	5	1
1	23	9	2	1	7	7	2	15	4
17	2	24	11	14	9	10	7	3	6
6	2	1	8	1	5	9	6	2	14
3	19	3	1					•	

a. Do the data provide sufficient evidence to conclude that, on the average, the lengths of stay in short-term hospitals by males and females differ? Assume $\sigma_1 = 5.4$ days and $\sigma_2 = 4.6$ days. Perform the appropriate hypothesis test at the 5% significance level.

b. Determine a 95% confidence interval for the differences $\mu_1 - \mu_2$ between the mean lengths of stay in short-term hospitals by males and females.

<u>Comparing Population Means (2-Sample t test)</u>

Suppose n_1 and n_2 are from normally distributed populations. Also suppose that the samples are taken independently. If the population standard deviations can be assumed to be equal, then we "pool" the sample standard deviations together

Assumptions:

- 1. independent samples
- 2. normal populations (or large samples)
- 3. equal population standard deviations (but unknown sometimes)

When considering the pooled t-test, it is important to watch for outliers. The presence of outliers calls into question the normality assumption. And even for large samples, outliers can sometimes unduly affect a pooled t-test because the sample mean and sample standard deviation are not resistant to them.

example: In a packing plant, a machine packs cartons with jars. A salesperson claims that the machine she is selling will pack faster. To test that claim, the times it takes each machine to pack 10 cartons are recorded (in seconds). The results, in seconds, are shown in the following tables.

New machine	42.0	41.0	41.3	41.8	42.4
	42.8	43.2	42.3	41.8	42.7
Present machine	42.7	43.6	43.8	43.3	42.5
	43.5	43.1	41.7	44.0	44.1

population	new	n ₁ =10	$\bar{x}_1 = 42.13$	s ₁ =0.685
1	machine			
population 2	present machine	n ₂ =10	$\bar{x}_2 = 43.23$	s ₂ =0.750

Do the data provide sufficient evidence to conclude that, on the average, the new machine packs faster? Perform the required hypothesis test at the 5% level of significance. Assume that the population standard deviations are equal, but unknown.

example: Referring to the problem above, determine a 90% confidence interval for the difference, $\mu_1 - \mu_2$, between the mean time it takes the new machine to pack 10 cartons and the mean time it takes the present machine to pack 10 cartons. Interpret your results.

example: Researchers studying obesity wanted to compare the effectiveness of dieting with exercise to dieting without exercise. 73 patients were randomly divided into two groups. Group 1, composed of 37 patients, was put on a program of dieting with exercise. Group 2, composed of 36 patients, dieted only. The results for weight loss, in pounds, after 2 months are summarized as follows: (Assume that both sets of data are normally distributed.)

GROUP 1	n ₁ =37	$\bar{x}_1 = 16.8 \text{ lb}$	$s_1 = 3.5 \text{ lb}$
GROUP 2	n ₂ =36	$\bar{x}_2 = 17.1 \text{ lb}$	$s_2 = 5.2 \text{ lb}$

a) At the 0.05 significance level, determine whether there is a difference between the two treatments.

b) Identify the study as a designed experiment or an observational study. Explain your answer.

The pooled problems only works when $\sigma_1 = \sigma_2$. If you aren't sure, or if it has not been stated, you must use the non-pooled-t test.

Assumptions:

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- 1. independent samples
- 2. normal populations

Example: The following are ACT results for college-bound students, broken down by gender.

population 1 male
$$n_1 = 15$$
 $\overline{x}_1 = 18.3$ $s_1 = 3.8$ population 2 female $n_2 = 15$ $\overline{x}_2 = 16.2$ $s_2 = 4.0$

a) If you cannot assume that the population standard deviation of test scores for males and females are equal, does it appear that college-bound males are, on the average, outperforming college-bound females in the math portion of the ACT? Test at a 5% significance level.

b) Same question, but use a 10% significance level.

c) Are the results the same? Why or why not?

10.2 & 11.2 <u>Comparing Population</u> Proportions of Different Populations

Assumptions:

- 1. independent samples
- 2. n_1p_1 , $n_1(1-p_1)$, n_2p_2 , $n_2(1-p_2)$ are all at least 5

Here we are **pooling the proportions** when we calculate \hat{p}_p because the standard deviations of each population may differ. The margin of error, **E**, is half the confidence interval; likewise the sample size can be found (having an error of at most E) using the formula

$$n_1 = n_2 = 0.5 \left(\frac{Z_{\alpha/2}}{E}\right)^2$$

example: In April and May 1985, the Gallup organization conducted a poll to estimate the percentage of Americans who approved of how President Reagan was handling his job. At the 5% significance level, do the data suggest that the percentage of those who approved of Reagan increased from April to May 1985?

population 1 April
$$\vec{p}_1 = \frac{795}{1528} = 0.5203$$

population 2 May $\vec{p}_2 = \frac{840}{1528} = 0.5497$

Construct a 90% confidence interval for the differing percentages of those Americans who approve of Reagan from April to May 1985 $(p_1 - p_2)$.

Example: The Organization for Economic Cooperation and Development summarizes data on labor-force participation rates. Independent samples were taken of 300 U.S. women and 250 Canadian women. Of the U.S. women, 211 were found to be in the labor force; of the Canadian women, 170 were found to be in the labor force. At the 5% significance level, do the data suggest that there is a difference between the labor-force participation rates of U.S. and Canadian women?

Find and interpret a 95% confidence interval for the difference $p_1 - p_2$, between the labor force participation rates of U.S. and Canadian women.

10.3 & 11.3 Paired Samples (not independent)

Sometimes you wish to examine the mean value of a population before and after some stimulus cause a change. Since the samples are chosen from the same population, they aren't necessarily independent.

example: 10 balding men are in an experiment. Their mean hair density is measured both before and after a hair tonic is applied in order to determine whether the hair tonic increased the mean hair density. This is a **paired sample** experiment. We wish to determine if the difference is significant.

You will need to "trick" your calculator so that you can pair the data.

example: A pediatrician measured the blood cholesterol levels of her young patients. She was surprised to find that many of them had levels over 200 mg per 100 ml, indicating increased risk of artery disease. Ten such patients were randomly selected to take part in a nutritional program designed to lower blood cholesterol. Two months after the program started, the pediatrician measured the blood cholesterol levels of the ten patients again. Here are the data.

patient #	Before x_1	After x_2
1	210	212
2	217	210
3	208	210
4	215	213
5	202	200
6	209	208
7	207	203
8	210	199
9	221	218
10	218	214

Do the data suggest that the nutritional program is, on the average, effective in reducing cholesterol levels? Perform the appropriate hypothesis test at the 5% level of significance.

example: Referring to the previous example, a. Determine a 90% confidence interval for the difference, $\mu_1 - \mu_2$, between the mean cholesterol levels of high-level patients before and after the nutritional program.

b. Determine a 90% confidence interval for the mean drop in cholesterol level as a result of the nutritional program. example: (From an old text) The Nielson Company collects data on the TV viewing habits of Americans. Twenty married couples are randomly selected. Their weekly viewing times, in hours are shown in the table. At the 1% level of significance, does it appear that married men watch less TV, on the average, than married women?

TT 1 1	XX I' C
Husband	Wife
21	24
56	55
34	55
30	54
41	32
35	38
26	38
38	45
27	29
30	41
31	37
30	35
32	48
15	17
36	35
20	34
43	32
4	13
16	9
21	23

How would you "word" a confidence interval for the previous problem? Find and interpret a 98% confidence interval for each interpretation.