

**Name – Md Anas**

**Course Name - Data analytics with GenAi**

**Topic - Hypothesis Testing**

**Email id - anasanwar1120@gmail.com**

**Question 1: What is a null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) and why is it important in hypothesis testing?**

- **Definition:** The null hypothesis states that there is *no significant difference or relationship* between variables in a population. For example, "There is no difference in exam scores between students who study with music and those who study in silence." Notation: It is usually written as  $H_0$ .
- **Contrast:** The alternative hypothesis ( $H_1$  or  $H_a$ ) suggests that a difference or relationship *does exist*.

Why is the Null Hypothesis Important?

1. Provides a Starting Point:
  - Hypothesis testing begins with the assumption that  $H_0$  is true. This makes analysis objective and avoids bias.
2. Basis for Statistical Tests:
  - Tests like the *t-test*, *chi-square test*, *ANOVA* are designed to evaluate whether data provide enough evidence to reject  $H_0$ .
3. Controls for Random Chance:
  - By assuming no effect, researchers can measure whether observed differences are statistically significant or just due to sampling error.
4. Scientific Rigor:
  - It ensures that claims of effects or differences are backed by evidence rather than assumptions. Without  $H_0$ , results could be misinterpreted

Example

Imagine you want to test if a new teaching method improves student performance:

- Null Hypothesis ( $H_0$ ): The new method has *no effect* on student scores.
- Alternative Hypothesis ( $H_1$ ): The new method *does improve* student scores.
- If statistical analysis shows a significant difference, you reject  $H_0$  in favor of  $H_1$ .

## Question 2: What does the significance level ( $\alpha$ ) represent in hypothesis testing?

### Answer

- Definition:  $\alpha$  is the cutoff point for deciding whether to reject  $H_0$ . Type I Error: It is the probability of falsely concluding that an effect exists when it doesn't.
- Common Values: Researchers often set  $\alpha$  at 0.05 (5%), meaning they accept a 5% risk of wrongly rejecting  $H_0$ . Other common choices are 0.01 (1%) and 0.10 (10%) depending on the field and context.

### Why $\alpha$ is Important

1. Controls Risk of False Positives:
  - By setting  $\alpha$ , researchers limit the chance of incorrectly claiming a discovery.
2. Defines "Statistical Significance":
  - If the p-value  $\leq \alpha$ , results are considered statistically significant, and  $H_0$  is rejected.
  - If the p-value  $> \alpha$ , results are not significant, and  $H_0$  is not rejected.
3. Balances Sensitivity and Specificity:
  - A smaller  $\alpha$  (like 0.01) reduces false positives but increases the chance of missing real effects (Type II error).
  - A larger  $\alpha$  (like 0.10) increases sensitivity to detect effects but risks more false positives.

### Example

Suppose you test whether a new medicine lowers blood pressure:

- $H_0$ : The medicine has no effect.
- $\alpha = 0.05$ : You accept a 5% risk of wrongly rejecting  $H_0$ .
- If your test produces a p-value = 0.03, since  $0.03 < 0.05$ , you reject  $H_0$  and conclude the medicine likely works.

## Question 3 Differentiate between Type I and Type II errors

### Type I Error (False Positive)

- Definition: Rejecting the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) when it is actually true.
- Analogy: A fire alarm goes off (positive result) when there's no fire (true state).
- Symbol: Alpha ( $\alpha$ ).
- Example: A medical test says a healthy person has a disease.

## Type II Error (False Negative)

- Definition: Failing to reject the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) when it is actually false.
- Analogy: A fire alarm doesn't go off (negative result) when there is a fire (false state).
- Symbol: Beta ( $\beta$ ).
- Example: A medical test says a sick person is healthy, missing the disease.

## Key Differences & Relationship

- False Positive vs. False Negative: Type I is a "false hit," while Type II is a "miss".
- Inverse Relationship: You can't easily minimize both; reducing the chance of one often increases the chance of the other.
- Consequences: Type I might lead to unnecessary action (e.g., useless treatment), while Type II leads to missed opportunities (e.g., untreated disease).

## Quick Reference Table

	<u>Type I Error</u> ( $\alpha$ )	<u>Type II Error</u> ( $\beta$ )
Action	Reject true $H_0$	Fail to reject false $H_0$
Result	False Positive	False Negative
Example	Convicting an innocent person	Letting a guilty person go free

**Question 4 Explain the difference between a one-tailed and two-tailed test. Give an example of each.**

**Answer** One-Tailed Test

- Definition: Tests for an effect in only one direction (greater than OR less than).

- Use Case: When you have a specific directional hypothesis.
- Decision Rule: Reject  $H_0$  only if the test statistic falls into the extreme tail of the distribution in the predicted direction.

Example:

Suppose you want to test if a new teaching method improves student scores compared to the traditional method.

- $H_0$ : The new method does not improve scores (mean  $\leq$  traditional).
  - $H_1$ : The new method improves scores (mean  $>$  traditional).
- 👉 This is a right-tailed test because you only care if scores are higher.

#### ◆ Two-Tailed Test

- Definition: Tests for an effect in both directions (greater than OR less than).
- Use Case: When you only want to know if there is any difference, without predicting the direction.
- Decision Rule: Reject  $H_0$  if the test statistic falls into either tail of the distribution.

Example:

Suppose you want to test if a new drug has any effect on blood pressure (could increase or decrease).

- $H_0$ : The drug has no effect (mean = control).
  - $H_1$ : The drug has an effect (mean  $\neq$  control).
- 👉 This is a two-tailed test because you care about both higher and lower outcome

**Question 5** A company claims that the average time to resolve a customer complaint is 10 minutes. A random sample of 9 complaints gives an average time of 12 minutes and a standard deviation of 3 minutes. At  $\alpha = 0.05$ , test the claim.

$$\{\bar{x}\}=12$$

$$n=9$$

$$S.D=3$$

$$\alpha=0.05$$

$$\mu_0=10$$

$$(\bar{x} - \mu) / (s / \sqrt{m})$$

$$t = (12 - 10) / (3 / \sqrt{9})$$

$$t=2$$

$$t=2$$

Degrees of freedom (df) = n – 1 = 8

For a two-tailed test at  $\alpha = 0.05$

t-value  $\approx \pm 2.306$

$$2 > 2.306,$$

so fail to reject  $H_0$ .

### **Question6 When should you use a Z-test instead of a t-test**

Use a Z-test when:

- Population  $\sigma$  is known: This is the primary condition, regardless of sample size.
- Sample size is large ( $n \geq 30$ ): Even if  $\sigma$  is unknown, the sample standard deviation (s) is a good enough estimate, and the Z-distribution approximates the t-distribution well enough.
- Testing proportions: Z-tests are always used for proportions (e.g., percentages).

Use a T-test when:

- Population  $\sigma$  is unknown: You must estimate it with the sample standard deviation (s).
- Sample size is small ( $n < 30$ ): The t-distribution accounts for the increased uncertainty from estimating  $\sigma$ .
- Sample size is moderate: When  $\sigma$  is unknown, t-tests are generally preferred.

**Question 7: The productivity of 6 employees was measured before and after a training program**

[assignment hypothesis.xlsx](#)

**Question 8: A company wants to test if product preference is independent of gender**

[assignment hypothesis.xlsx](#)