# **Inference Worksheet**

### **Step 1: State the Hypotheses**

We begin by specifying the hypotheses:

• Null Hypothesis (H<sub>0</sub>): The population mean is equal to 3 hours ( $\mu$  = 3).

*Example:* Children watch TV for 3 hours per day.

- Alternative Hypothesis (H<sub>1</sub>): The population mean differs from 3. Depending on research focus, H<sub>1</sub> can be:
  - ∘ **Two-tailed:**  $\mu \neq 3$
  - o **One-tailed greater:**  $\mu > 3$
  - ∘ **One-tailed less:**  $\mu$  < 3

This is like a courtroom analogy: the defendant (null hypothesis) is assumed innocent until there is sufficient evidence against them.

### Step 2: Set the Criteria for the Decision

We choose the **significance level (\alpha)**, usually 5% (0.05).

- This represents the maximum probability of committing a **Type I** error (rejecting a true  $H_0$ ).
- In the figure provided,  $\alpha$  is split into **two tails** ( $\alpha$ /2 each side), creating rejection regions.
- For medical research, a stricter  $\alpha$  (e.g., 0.01) is often used.

#### **Definition:**

• Level of significance (α): The threshold for deciding whether sample evidence is strong enough to reject H<sub>0</sub>.

# **Step 3: Compute the Test Statistic**

We compare the observed sample mean to the hypothesised population mean.

Suppose we collected a sample and found the average TV viewing = **4** hours.

We then calculate the **test statistic**:

$$t = \frac{\dot{x} - \mu}{SE}$$

Where:

- $\dot{x}$ = sample mean
- $\mu$  = population mean under H<sub>0</sub>
- SE = standard error of the mean

The test statistic tells us how far our sample mean is from the hypothesised mean in terms of standard errors.

### Step 4: Make a Decision

Using the computed test statistic and sampling distribution:

- If the **p-value**  $< \alpha$ , reject H<sub>0</sub> (evidence against the null).
- If the **p-value**  $\geq \alpha$ , fail to reject H<sub>0</sub> (evidence is insufficient).

### Example:

- If p = 0.03 at  $\alpha = 0.05 \rightarrow \text{reject H}_0$ .
- If p = 0.10 at  $\alpha = 0.05 \rightarrow fail$  to reject  $H_0$ .

Thus, there are two decisions possible:

- 1. Reject the null hypothesis.
- 2. Accept (fail to reject) the null hypothesis.

### **Hypothesis Testing and Sampling Distributions**

- The sample mean is an unbiased estimator of the population mean.
- The **sampling distribution of the mean** is normally distributed (Central Limit Theorem).
- To locate the probability of observing a sample mean, we need:
  - 1. The hypothesised population mean.
  - 2. The standard error of the mean.

Because we observe only samples (not the entire population), there is always a chance of error in conclusions.

# **Errors in Hypothesis Testing**

Decision	Ho is True	Ho is False
Accept Ho	Correct $(1 - \alpha)$	Type II Error (β)
Reject Ho	Type I Error (α)	Correct (Power = $1-\beta$ )

- **Type I Error** ( $\alpha$ ): Rejecting H<sub>0</sub> when it is actually true (false positive).
- **Type II Error** (β): Failing to reject H<sub>0</sub> when it is actually false (false negative).
- **Power (1–\beta):** Probability of correctly rejecting a false H<sub>0</sub>.

#### Analogy:

- **Type I error:** Convicting an innocent person.
- **Type II error:** Letting a guilty person go free.

### The Decision to Reject Ho

- When rejecting H<sub>0</sub>, we might be correct or incorrect.
- The probability of making a **Type I error** is set by our choice of  $\alpha$  (significance level).
- This is why medical research uses smaller  $\alpha$  values, as the consequences of a false positive are severe.

# **Reporting Significance Levels**

- Rejecting  $H_0$  at  $\alpha = 0.05$  does **not** mean there is a 95% chance that  $H_0$  is false.
- Instead, it means the probability of observing the result (or more extreme) if  $H_0$  were true is < 5%.

### **Importance of Setting Hypotheses in Advance**

 Hypotheses (H<sub>0</sub> and H<sub>1</sub>) must be defined **before** inspecting the data.

- Switching to a one-tailed test after seeing the data inflates the risk of false positives (equivalent to a two-tailed test with  $\alpha$  doubled).
- Doing so is misleading and can invalidate results.

### **Hypothesis Tests and "Proof"**

- Hypothesis testing cannot **prove** or **disprove** a hypothesis.
- Instead, it assesses whether sample evidence is consistent or inconsistent with Ho.
- A p-value = 0 is impossible in practice, so absolute proof is unattainable.

### **Related vs. Unrelated Samples**

- Related samples tests (paired samples) are more powerful since individual differences cancel out.
- Unrelated samples tests (independent samples) may require larger sample sizes.
- However, repeated measurements in related samples may risk participant dropout, which must be considered in study design.

#### Conclusion

Hypothesis testing is a structured process involving:

- 1. Stating H<sub>0</sub> and H<sub>1</sub>.
- 2. Choosing a significance level  $(\alpha)$ .
- 3. Computing a test statistic.
- 4. Making a decision based on p-values.

Errors are possible, but careful choice of significance level and study design reduces risks. Hypothesis testing does not prove or disprove but instead provides evidence for or against the null hypothesis.