

## Chapter 8 Tests of Hypotheses Based on One Sample

In this chapter, we will look at how to decide between two claims about a parameter.

### 8.1 Hypotheses and Test Procedures:

Often we are interested in testing a statistical hypothesis which is a claim about a parameter, several parameters, or the entire probability distribution.

- ex:
- $\mu = 10$
  - Population distribution is  $N(0,1)$
  - $\mu_1 > \mu_2$

The structure of a hypothesis test:

- We have two contradictory hypotheses under consideration  
ex:  $\mu = 10$  vs.  $\mu \neq 10$
- Based on a random sample, we want to decide which is correct.
- One claim, called the null hypothesis  $H_0$ , is the claim that is initially assumed to be true. (A prior belief claim.)
- The other claim is called the alternative hypothesis  $H_a$ . It contradicts the null hypothesis.
- If the sample provides strong evidence the null hypothesis is false, then we reject  $H_0$  and now favor the alternative hypothesis  $H_a$ .
- If the sample does not strongly contradict  $H_0$ , then we continue to believe the null hypothesis is plausible.
- So the only two possible conclusions are
  - Reject  $H_0$ , or
  - Fail to reject  $H_0$ .

Example 1: Identify the null hypothesis  $H_0$  and alternative hypothesis  $H_a$  for each situation.

a) A company says their toner cartridge lasts for 2000 pages of text on average.

A competitor tries to prove it's actually less than 2000.

$$H_0: \mu = 2000$$

$$H_a: \mu < 2000$$

b) The current scientific literature states that a physical constant  $w$  is 4.62.

A researcher explores the possibility that this estimate is incorrect.

$$H_0: w = 4.62$$

$$H_a: w \neq 4.62$$

## The Test Procedure and P-Value:

A company wants to test if consumers like brand C more than brand D.

They give a blind taste test to a random sample of 100 consumers and record that 72 people prefer brand C to D.

The hypothesis test comes in 4 parts.

### ① Setup Hypotheses

Let  $p$  be the proportion of consumers who like brand C more than D.

$$H_0: p = 0.5$$

$$H_a: p > 0.5$$

### ② Test Statistic

In this case, our test statistic is  $X$ , the number of consumers in the sample who prefer brand C to D.

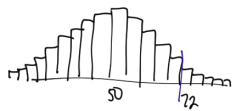
In this case, if  $H_0$  is true then

$$X \sim \text{Bin}(100, 0.5)$$

### ③ P-Value

Data:  $X = 72$

If  $H_0$  is true, what is the probability that  $X$  is at least as extreme as 72?



$$P(X \geq 72)$$

$$\text{in R: } \text{pbinom}(71.5, 100, 0.5, \text{lower.tail} = \text{FALSE}) \\ \approx 6.29 \times 10^{-6}$$

$$P\text{-value} = 0.00000629$$

### ④ Conclusion

This sample provides strong evidence against  $H_0$ , and in favor of  $H_a$ .

We reject  $H_0$  and adopt  $H_a$ .

Defns: The Test Statistic is a function of the sample data used as a basis to decide if  $H_0$  should be rejected.

The P-value is the probability, calculated assuming  $H_0$  is true, that of obtaining a test statistic at least as contradictory to  $H_0$  as the value from this sample.

The significance level  $\alpha$  is the number used as a cutoff. If the

$P\text{-value} \leq \alpha$ , then we reject  $H_0$ . Instead if

$P\text{-value} > \alpha$ , then we fail to reject  $H_0$ .

Example 2: The drying time for a type of paint under specific conditions is known to be normally distributed with mean 75 minutes and sd 9 min. A new additive is tested to see if it decreases drying time. (We'll assume  $\sigma=9$  does not change.) The significance level is  $\alpha=0.05$ .

- Form the hypotheses:

$$H_0: \mu = 75$$

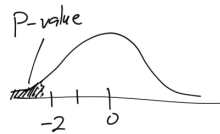
$$H_a: \mu < 75$$

- We use the test statistic  $Z = \frac{\bar{X} - 75}{9/\sqrt{n}}$  so that if  $H_0$  is true,  $Z \sim N(0,1)$

- A sample of  $n=25$  gives  $\bar{x}=71$ . Find the P-value.

$$Z = \frac{71 - 75}{9/\sqrt{25}} = \frac{-4}{9/5} = -4 \cdot \frac{5}{9} = -\frac{20}{9}$$

$$P\text{-value} = \text{pnorm}(-20/9) \approx 0.013.$$



- Therefore, our conclusion is

Since P-value is less than  $\alpha=0.05$ , then we reject  $H_0$ .

We adopt  $H_a$  that the mean drying time is now less than 75.

95% CI



### Errors in Hypothesis Testing:

A Type I error is made if we reject  $H_0$  when it is true.

A Type II error is made if we fail to reject  $H_0$  when it is false.

	we reject $H_0$	we fail to reject $H_0$
$H_0$ true	Type I error	correct
$H_0$ false	correct	Type II error

Example 3: A protein bar is advertised to have 10g of protein per serving.

A random sample of bars is tested to see if the true average protein per serving is less than 10g. What is a Type I error in this context? What about Type II?

Type I error: There actually is 10g protein per serving, but we rejected  $H_0$ .

Type II error: There are actually less than 10g per serving, but we failed to reject  $H_0$ .

Example 4: As in Example 2, say we are testing the drying time of the paint.

$H_0: \mu = 75$  We use significance level  $\alpha = 0.05$ , and as before  $\sigma = 9$ ,  $n = 25$ .

$H_a: \mu < 75$

a) What is a Type I error in this situation?

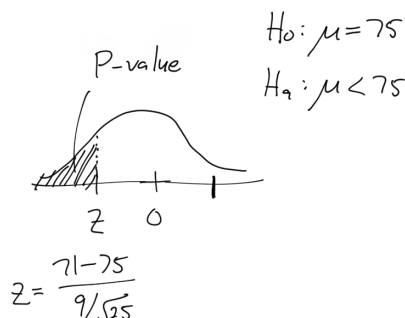
$\mu = 75$  (additive makes no difference) but we rejected  $H_0$ .

b) What is  $P(\text{Type I error})$ ?

Type I error is rejecting  $H_0$  when it's actually true.

If  $H_0$  is true,

$$P(\text{Type I error}) = P(P\text{-value} \leq 0.05) = 0.05$$



c) What is a Type II error in this situation?

The drying time is less than 75 minutes but we failed to reject  $H_0$ .

d) What is the probability we make a Type II error if the true mean drying

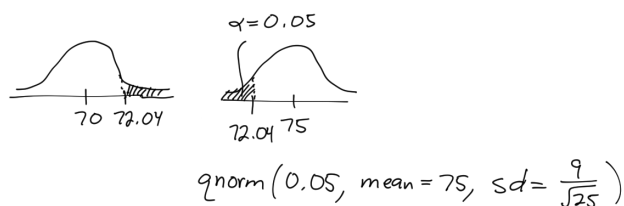
time with the chemical additive is  $\mu = 70$ ?

If the true mean drying time is  $\mu = 70$ ,

$$P(\text{type II error}) = P(\text{fail to reject } H_0)$$

$$= P(\bar{X} > 72.04) = 1 - \text{pnorm}(72.04, \text{mean} = 70, \text{sd} = \frac{9}{5})$$

$$\approx \boxed{0.129}$$



Prop: • The test procedure that rejects  $H_0$  if  $P\text{-value} \leq \alpha$  and otherwise

does not reject  $H_0$  has  $P(\text{type I error}) = \alpha$ .

• After we decide our sampling procedure, sample size, and test statistic,

as  $\alpha$  increases, the probability of making a type II error decreases.

Comments on P-values:

- The P-value provides more information than just whether or not we reject  $H_0$ .  
So it's a good practice to always report the P-value.
- The P-value is a probability calculated assuming  $H_0$  is true.
- Smaller P-values provide stronger evidence against  $H_0$  and in favor of  $H_a$ .
- The P-value is not the probability  $H_0$  is true or false or that our conclusion is an error.

## 8.2 Z Tests for Hypotheses about a Population Mean.

The general hypothesis test structure is

- 1) Form the hypotheses  $H_0$  and  $H_a$ .
- 2) Compute the appropriate test statistic
- 3) Determine the P-value, the probability, assuming  $H_0$  is true, that we observe a test statistic at least as extreme as what resulted from the data.
- 4) Reject  $H_0$  if  $P\text{-value} \leq \alpha$   
Fail to reject  $H_0$  if  $P\text{-value} > \alpha$ .

Steps (2) and (3) are the steps that vary based on the test statistic used.

In this section, we cover tests for a population mean using a Z test statistic.

### Normal Population with Known $\sigma$ :

It is unrealistic to know  $\sigma$  in practice, but this is a good starting point.

- 1) Our test will involve  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$  and one of these alternatives:

$$H_a: \mu > \mu_0, \quad H_a: \mu < \mu_0, \quad \text{or} \quad H_a: \mu \neq \mu_0.$$

- 2) If  $X_1, \dots, X_n$  is sampled from the normal population, then if  $H_0$  is true,

$$\bar{X} \sim N(\mu_0, \frac{\sigma^2}{n}).$$

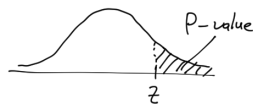
$$\text{Our test statistic is } Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}.$$

If  $H_0$  is true,  $Z \sim N(0, 1)$ .

- 3) Finding the P-value depends on the form of  $H_a$ :

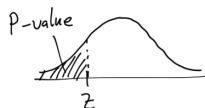
If  $H_a: \mu > \mu_0$ , then the P-value is the area under the standard normal curve to the right of the test statistic  $z$ .

$$\text{In R, } P\text{-value} = 1 - \text{pnorm}(z)$$

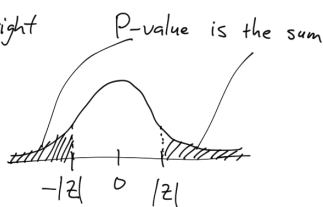


If  $H_a: \mu < \mu_0$ , then the P-value is the area under the standard normal curve to the left of the test statistic  $z$ .

$$\text{In R, } P\text{-value} = \text{pnorm}(z).$$



Lastly if  $H_a: \mu \neq \mu_0$ , then the P-value is the area under the standard normal curve which is left of  $-|z|$  or right of  $|z|$ .



$$P\text{-value} = 2 \cdot \text{pnorm}(-|z|)$$

- 4) As usual, if  $P\text{-value} \leq \alpha$  we reject  $H_0$ .  
If  $P\text{-value} > \alpha$  we fail to reject  $H_0$ .

Example 1: A particular type of tire is supposed to be filled to 30 psi.

Assume we know the psi is normally distributed with  $\sigma = 2$  psi.

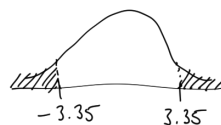
We obtain a random sample of 20 tires and measure their psi to test if the mean psi is not equal to 30. We get  $\bar{x} = 28.5$  psi. Perform the hypothesis test at the  $\alpha = 0.05$  significance level.

Let  $\mu$  be the population mean tire psi.

Hypotheses:  $H_0: \mu = 30$ ,  $H_a: \mu \neq 30$

Test Statistic:  $z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$ . We get  $z = \frac{28.5 - 30}{2/\sqrt{20}} \approx -3.35$

P-value: in R:  $2 \cdot \text{pnorm}(-3.35)$ .



$$P\text{-value} \approx 0.00081$$

Conclusion: Since P-value is less than  $\alpha = 0.05$ , we reject  $H_0$ .

So we conclude that the true mean psi of these tires is not 30.

## Large Sample Tests

When the sample size is large ( $n > 40$ ), we can slightly modify the test statistic to use a Z-test. (It is not required that the population is normal, and we do not need to know  $\sigma$ .)

As in chapter 7 with CIs, when  $n$  is large,

$$Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}} \text{ is approximately standard normal.}$$

So we can use  $Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{S/\sqrt{n}}$  as our test statistic. When  $H_0$  is true,

this test statistic is approximately standard normal.

Example 2: The recommended daily dietary zinc for a certain cohort is

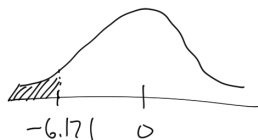
15 mg/day. In a random sample of  $n=115$  individuals' zinc intake,

$\bar{x}=11.3$  and  $s=6.43$ . Does this data indicate the average daily zinc intake for this cohort is below 15 mg?

Hypotheses:  $H_0: \mu = 15$  vs  $H_a: \mu < 15$

Test Statistic:  $Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{S/\sqrt{n}}$  .  $z = \frac{11.3 - 15}{6.43/\sqrt{115}} \approx -6.171$

P-value:



$$P\text{-value} = \text{pnorm}(-6.171) \approx 3.39 \times 10^{-10}$$

Conclusion: We reject  $H_0$ , and conclude this cohort's daily zinc intake is on average less than 15 mg.