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The SJSU logo, consisting of the letters "SJSU" in a bold blue font, followed by "SAN JOSÉ STATE UNIVERSITY" in a smaller blue font.

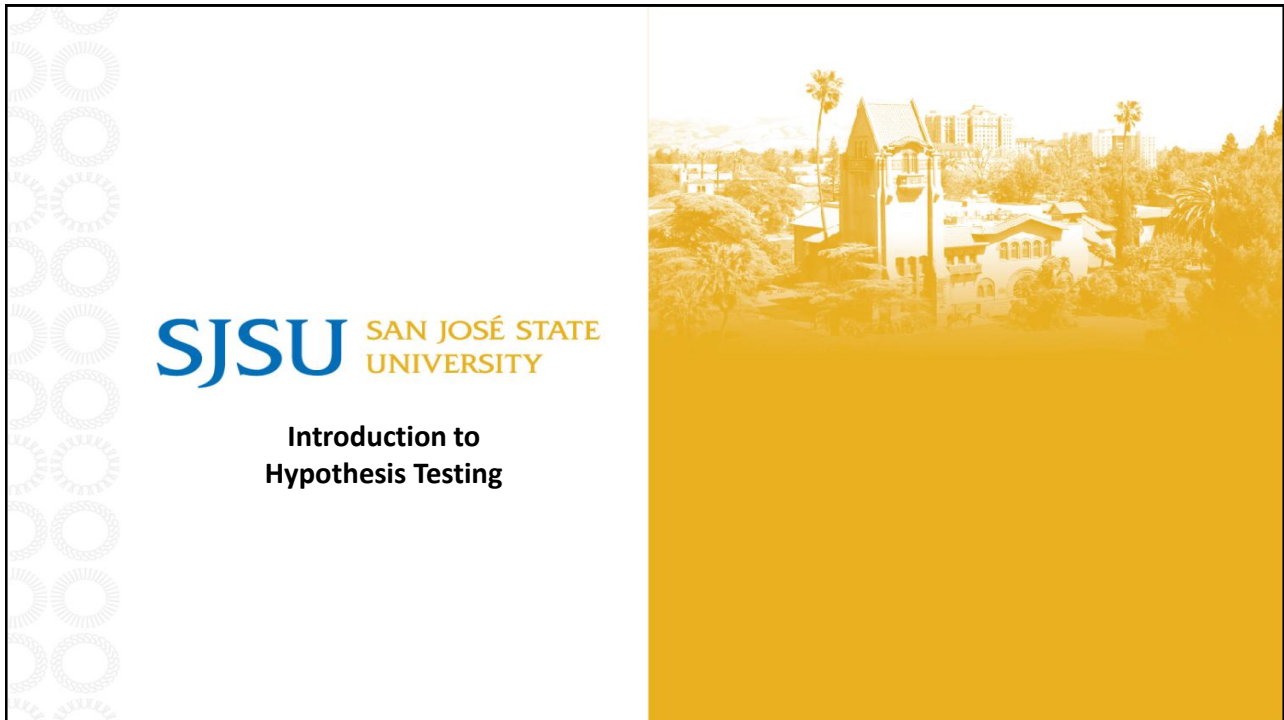
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## Agenda


- Introduction to Hypothesis Testing
- Steps of Hypothesis Testing
- Types of Errors, Significance Levels & Power
- Examples, Tests, and Practice Problems

A repeating pattern of the SJSU logo and the text "SAN JOSÉ STATE UNIVERSITY" in a light blue, semi-transparent font, arranged in a grid-like fashion across the bottom of the slide.

2



3



## What is Hypothesis Testing?

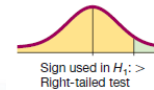
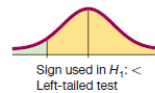
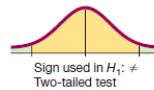
- A statistical method to make or test claims decisions about population parameters.
- Uses sample data to test assumptions.
- Central to scientific reasoning, quality control, and evidence-based decision-making.
- Compares hypotheses using probabilistic reasoning.
- **Hypothesis test** is also known as **test of significance**.

4

## Null and Alternative Hypothesis

The first step is to create the two possibilities in hypothesis testing:

- Null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ): Default claim or “Status Quo”
  - A statement that the value of a population parameter is equal to some claimed value.
- Alternative hypothesis ( $H_A$  or  $H_1$ ): The claim that we seek evidence
  - A statement that the parameter has a value that somehow differs from the null hypothesis.
- Types:
  - Two-tailed:  $H_A: \mu \neq \mu_0$
  - Left-tailed:  $H_A: \mu < \mu_0$
  - Right-tailed:  $H_A: \mu > \mu_0$

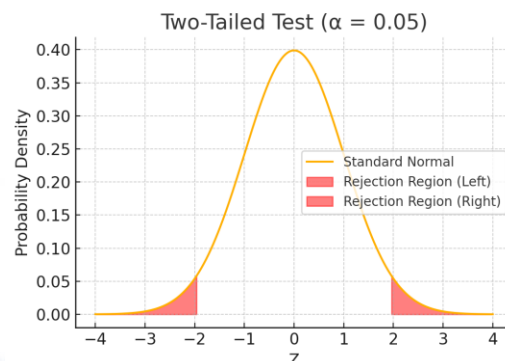


5

5

## One-Tailed vs. Two-Tailed Tests

- Two-tailed: Difference in either direction
- One-tailed: Directional difference



6

## Examples of Hypotheses

- Lifespan of LED bulbs:
  - $H_0: \mu \geq 1000$  hrs
  - $H_A: \mu < 1000$  hrs
- Drug effectiveness:
  - $H_0: \mu = \text{placebo mean}$
  - $H_A: \mu \neq \text{placebo mean}$
- Defect rate:
  - $H_0: p \leq 0.05$
  - $H_A: p > 0.05$

7

## Example: Defining the Null and Alternative Hypothesis

Consider the claim that a medical procedure designed to increase the likelihood of a baby girl is effective, so that the probability of a baby girl is  $p > 0.5$ .

Define the null and alternative hypotheses.

8

### Example: Can Dogs Smell Bladder Cancer?

- A study by M. Willis et al. considered whether dogs could be trained to detect if a person has bladder cancer by smelling his/her urine.
- 6 dogs of varying breeds were trained to discriminate between urine from patients with bladder cancer and urine from control patients without it.
- The dogs were taught to indicate which among several specimens was from the bladder cancer patient by lying beside it.
- Once trained, the dogs' ability to distinguish cancer patients from controls was tested using urine samples from subjects not previously encountered by the dogs.

9

9

### Example: Can Dogs Smell Bladder Cancer?

- The researchers blinded both dog handlers and experimental observers to the identity of urine samples.
- Each of the 6 dogs was tested with 9 trials. In each trial, one urine sample from a bladder cancer patient was randomly placed among 6 control urine samples.
- Outcome: In the total of 54 trials with the 6 dogs, the dogs made the correct selection 22 times.
- The dogs were correct for  $22/54 \approx 41\%$  of the time → not fabulous
- If the dogs just guessed at random, they were only expected to be correct for  $1/7 \approx 14\%$  of the time
- Is this difference (41% vs 14%) surprising?

10

10

### Example: Can Dogs Smell Bladder Cancer?

Let  $p$  be the probability that a dog makes the correct selection on a given trial.

- Null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ):  $p = 1/7$

“There is nothing going on.” → “null” means “nothing surprising is going on”.

The dogs just guessed at random → lucky to make more correct selections than expected.

- Alternative hypothesis ( $H_A$  or  $H_1$ ):  $p > 1/7$

“There is something going on.”

Dogs can do better than random guessing

11

11

### Weighing Evidence Using a Test Statistic

After defining  $H_0$  and  $H_A$ , the next step of hypothesis testing is to weigh the evidence →

How likely the observed data could have occurred if  $H_0$  was true?

- If the observed result was very unlikely to have occurred under the  $H_0$ , then the evidence raises more than a reasonable doubt in our minds about the  $H_0$ .

The **test statistic** is a summary of the data that best reflects the evidence for or against the hypotheses.

For the example, the test statistics that is chosen:

$X$  = the total number of correct selections in the 54 trials

A larger  $X$  value is a stronger evidence for  $H_A$  and against  $H_0$

12

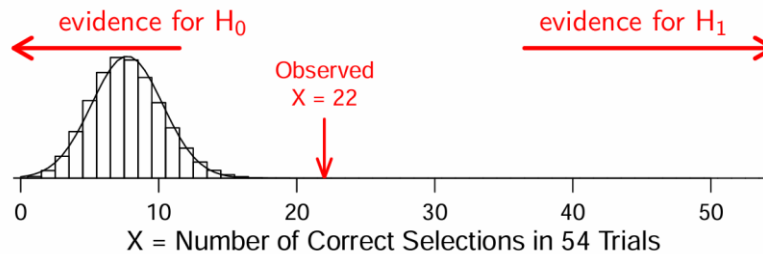
12

## Distribution of the Test Statistic Under $H_0$

For the “Dogs Smell Cancer” example, if  $H_0$  is true, then

$$X \sim \text{Binomial}(n = 54, p = 1/7)$$

which implies



13

13

## Example: Can Dogs Smell Bladder Cancer?

- What's the conclusion of this example?
- Any evidence that dogs have some ability to smell bladder cancer?
- If so, how practical is it?

14

14

## Steps in Hypothesis Testing

- Formulate  $H_0$  and  $H_A$
- Choose significance level  $\alpha$
- Select appropriate test statistic (e.g.  $z$ ,  $t$ , etc)
- Compute the test statistic and  $p$ -value
- Decision: **Reject** or **Fail to reject**  $H_0$

Parameter	Sampling Distribution	Requirements	Test Statistic
Proportion $p$	Normal ( $z$ )	$np \geq 5$ and $nq \geq 5$	$z = \frac{\hat{p} - p}{\sqrt{\frac{pq}{n}}}$
Mean $\mu$	$t$	$\sigma$ not known and normally distributed population or $\sigma$ not known and $n > 30$	$t = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}}$
Mean $\mu$	Normal ( $z$ )	$\sigma$ known and normally distributed population or $\sigma$ known and $n > 30$	$z = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}}$
St. dev. $\sigma$ or variance $\sigma^2$	$\chi^2$	Strict requirement: normally distributed population	$\chi^2 = \frac{(n-1)s^2}{\sigma^2}$

15

15

## Test Procedure & Rejection Region

A test procedure is specified by the following:

- a test statistic
- a rejection region

The null hypothesis  $H_0$  will be rejected if & only if the test statistic falls in the rejection region.

A sensible rejection region is of the form

$$X \geq k \text{ for some cutoff } k$$

and the test procedure is reject  $H_0$  if  $X \geq k$

16

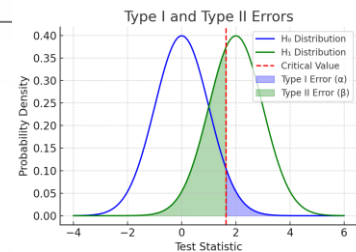
16



## Type I and Type II Errors

In a hypothesis test, we make a decision about which of  $H_0$  or  $H_A$  might be true, but our decision might be incorrect.

	Decision	
	fail to reject $H_0$	reject $H_0$
Truth		
$H_0$ true	✓	Type I Error
$H_1$ true	Type II Error	✓



- Type I Error ( $\alpha$ ): rejecting  $H_0$  when it is true.
- Type II Error ( $\beta$ ): failing to reject  $H_0$  when it is false.

17

## Example: Type 1 and 2 Errors

Consider the claim that a medical procedure designed to increase the likelihood of a baby girl is effective, so that the probability of a baby girl is  $p > 0.5$ .

What are the Type I and Type II Errors?

18

## Interpretations of Type 1 and 2 Errors

Type 1 and Type 2 errors are different sorts of mistakes and have different consequences:

- Usually  $H_0$  is the status quo, thing we generally believe to be true
- If  $H_0$  is not rejected → the status quo is fine. No action needs to be taken
- Rejecting  $H_0$  means something we used to believe is overturned. It might be a scientific breakthrough (e.g. discovery of a new drug).
- A Type 1 error introduces a false conclusion that can lead to a tremendous waste of resources before further research invalidates the original finding.
- A Type 2 error represents a missed opportunity for scientific progress
- Type 2 errors can be costly as well, but generally go unnoticed

19

19

## Significance Level of Hypothesis Testing

- The Significance Level  $\alpha$  for a hypothesis test is the probability value used as the cutoff for determining when the sample evidence constitutes significant evidence against the null hypothesis  $H_0$ .

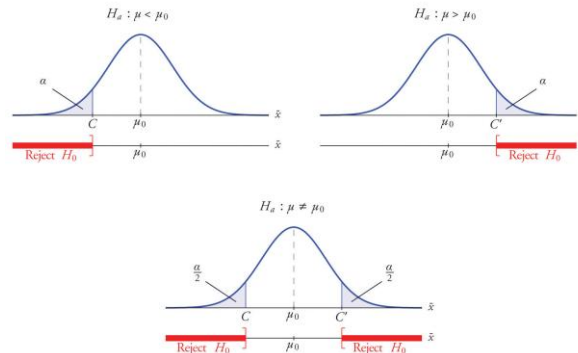
Significance Level  $\alpha$  = P (rejecting  $H_0$  when  $H_0$  is true)

= P(Type 1 error)

- The probability of rejecting the null hypothesis  $H_0$  when it is actually true (Type I error).

20

## Significance Level of Hypothesis Testing



- Common choices of  $\alpha$  are **0.01, 0.05, 0.10**.
- Controls how “strict” the test is in ruling out random chance (Smaller  $\alpha$  means stricter criteria for significance)

21

## Different Significance Levels

- Using a different value for  $\alpha$  can change whether we reject  $H_0$  or not.

Example: A cigarette company claims that the average nicotine content is 1.5 mg/cigarette.

$$H_0: \mu = 1.5$$

$$H_A: \mu > 1.5$$

Significance Level $\alpha$	Rejection Region	Conclusion for $z = 2.10$	Significance level preferred by
.05	$z_1 > 1.645$	Reject $H_0$	Anti-tobacco activists
.025	$z_2 > 1.96$	Reject $H_0$	Anti-tobacco activists
.01	$z_3 > 2.33$	Fail to reject $H_0$	Tobacco company
.005	$z_4 > 2.58$	Fail to reject $H_0$	Tobacco company

22

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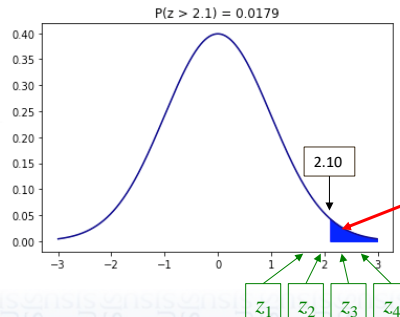
## Different Significance Levels

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.01	$z_3 > 2.33$	Fail to reject $H_0$	Tobacco company
.005	$z_4 > 2.58$	Fail to reject $H_0$	Tobacco company

$$H_0: \mu = 1.5$$

$$H_a: \mu > 1.5$$

The tobacco company can claim that they failed to reject  $H_0$ . But the company probably won't tell you what significance level it used for testing.



This area 0.0179 is the **smallest  $\alpha$**  at which we can reject  $H_0$ . Any smaller area would not include 2.10

23

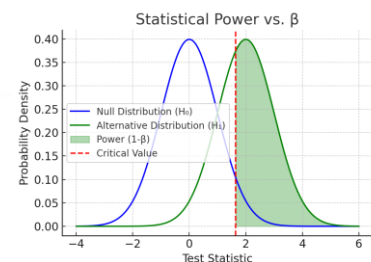
23

## Power of Hypothesis Testing

- The **Power** for a hypothesis test is the probability correctly rejecting the null hypothesis  $H_0$  when the alternative hypothesis is true  $H_A$ .

$$\text{Power} = 1 - P(\text{Type II error}) = 1 - \beta$$

- The probability of avoiding a Type II error (Correction rejection)
- Higher power means a greater ability to detect true effects.
- Power increases with larger sample sizes and lower variability.
- Higher  $\alpha \rightarrow$  higher power



24

24

## Controlling Type 1 Errors

How to Control Type I Error:

- Set a Smaller Significance Level  $\alpha$ 
  - Common values: 0.05, 0.01, 0.001
  - Example: Use  $\alpha = 0.01$  to reduce false positives in critical medical trials
- Use Two-Tailed Tests When Appropriate
  - Less aggressive than one-tailed, splits  $\alpha$  between both tails
- Ensure Assumptions of the Test Are Met
  - Incorrect assumptions (e.g., non-normality) can inflate error rates
- Apply Multiple Comparison Corrections (when testing many hypotheses)

25

25

## Controlling Type 2 Errors

How to Control Type II Error:

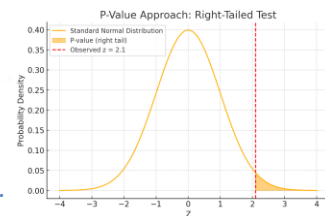
- Increase Sample Size  $n$ 
  - Reduces standard error  $\rightarrow$  increases test sensitivity  $\rightarrow$  lower  $\beta$ .
- Increase Effect Size (if feasible)
  - Sometimes through better instrumentation, experimental design, or stronger treatments.
- Choose a Higher Significance Level  $\alpha$ 
  - Increases power, but also increases Type I error risk  $\rightarrow$  trade-off must be justified
- Use More Powerful Tests
  - Parametric tests (t-test, z-test) are more powerful than non-parametric ones when assumptions are satisfied

26

26

## The P-Values and Hypothesis Testing

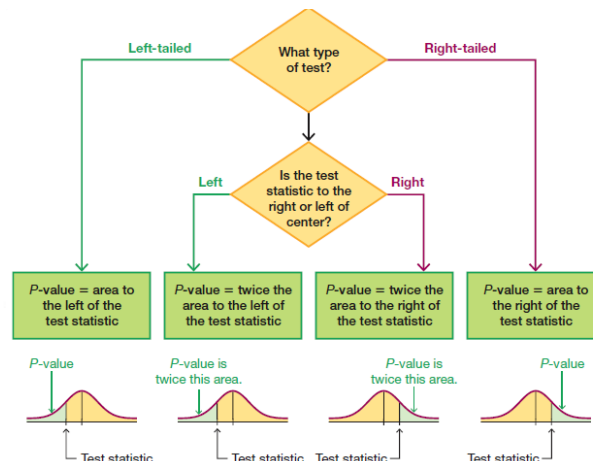
- The p-value of test is the probability of getting a value of the test statistic that is at least as extreme as the test statistic obtained from the sample data, assuming that the null hypothesis  $H_0$  is true.
- It quantifies the “strength” of the evidence against  $H_0$  (helps us decide whether to reject  $H_0$ )
  - A small p-value (usually less than the significance level, such as 0.05) indicates strong evidence against  $H_0$ .
  - A large p-value suggests weak evidence against  $H_0$  (fail to reject it).
- Compare the p-value to the significance level  $\alpha$ :
  - If  $p\text{-value} \leq \alpha$ : Reject  $H_0$  (evidence supports  $H_A$ ) at level  $\alpha$ .
  - If  $p\text{-value} > \alpha$ : Fail to reject  $H_0$  (evidence is insufficient to support  $H_A$ ).
- The p-value is the smallest level of significance at which  $H_0$  can be rejected.



27

27

## Finding P-Values

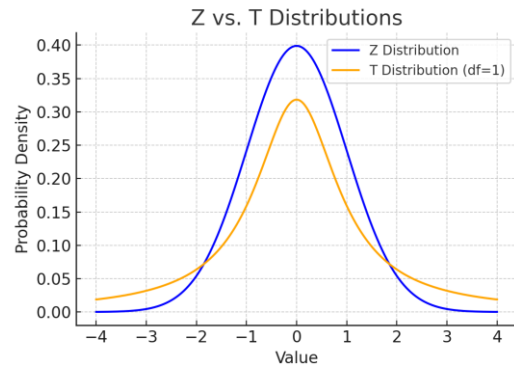


28

28

## Recall z vs t Tests

- z-test: Known  $\sigma$  or large  $n$
- t-test: Unknown  $\sigma$ , small  $n$
- Use *t-distribution* for small samples



29

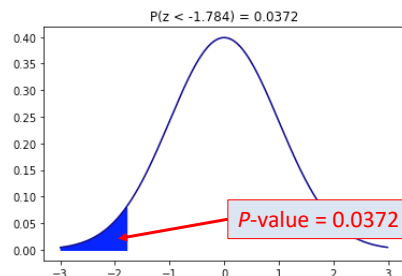
## Example: P-Value

Given that:

$$H_0: \mu = 125$$

$$H_A: \mu < 125$$

It's reported that the p-value = 0.0372. What's the smallest  $\alpha$  at which we can reject  $H_0$ ?



30

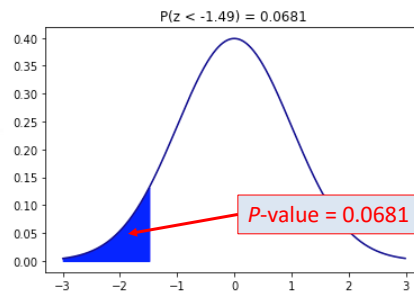
### Example: P-Value

Given that:

$$H_0: \mu = 10$$

$$H_A: \mu < 10$$

Suppose that a z test for testing results in the test statistic  $z = -1.49$ . What's the smallest  $\alpha$  at which we can reject  $H_0$ ?



31

31

### Example

A company claims that their light bulbs last an average of 1,000 hours. You suspect the true mean lifespan is less than 1,000 hours. You take a sample of 40 bulbs and find that the sample mean and standard deviation are 980 hours and 50 hours, respectively. The significance level is 0.05. Prove or disprove your suspicion.

32

32



## Relationship Between Confidence Intervals and 2-Sided Hypothesis Testing

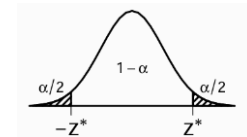
For a two-sided test:

$$H_0: \mu = \mu_0$$

$$H_A: \mu \neq \mu_0$$

The following are equivalent:

- p-value  $> \alpha$  (and hence  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$  is not rejected at level  $\alpha$ )
- $|z\text{-statistic}| = |(\bar{X} - \mu_0)/SE| < z^*$ , where  $z^*$  is a value such that
- $\mu_0$  is in the  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  confidence interval for  $\mu$ :



$$\bar{X} - z^* \cdot SE < \mu_0 < \bar{X} + z^* \cdot SE$$

33

33

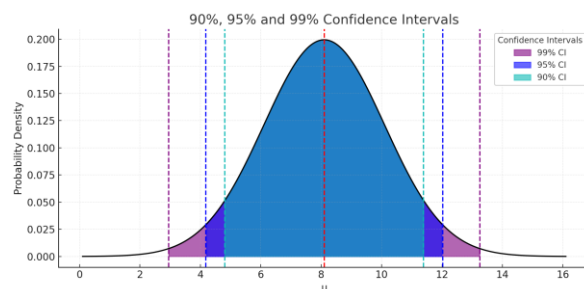
## Relationship Between Confidence Intervals and 2-Sided Hypothesis Testing

Suppose in a study, we have the following

- 90% CI for  $\mu$ : (4.81, 11.39)
- 95% CI for  $\mu$ : (4.18, 12.02)
- 99% CI for  $\mu$ : (2.95, 13.25)

Then

- $H_0: \mu = 4$  is rejected at 5% level but not at 1% level (2-sided p-value is between 1% and 5%)
- $H_0: \mu = 4.5$  is rejected at 10% level but not at 5% level



34

34

## Discussions on Hypothesis Testing

- Rejecting  $H_0$  doesn't mean we are 100% sure that  $H_0$  is false. We might make Type 1 errors. Setting a significance level just guarantee we won't make Type 1 error too often.
- P-value is not  $P(H_0 \text{ is true} \mid \text{data})$  but it is  $P(\text{data} \mid H_0 \text{ is true})$ .
- Another mistake is to conclude from a high p-value that the  $H_0$  is probably true.
- If our p-value is high, can we conclude that  $H_0$  is true?
  - No, we could make a Type 2 error when failing to reject  $H_0$
  - Moreover, unlike Type 1 error rate is controlled at a low level, Type 2 error rate is usually quite high. It is quite often that  $H_0$  is not true but the data fail to reject it.
- When we fail to reject  $H_0$ , often it just means the data are not able to distinguish between  $H_0$  and  $H_A$  (because the data are too noisy, etc)

35

35

## Summary: Hypothesis Testing Procedure

- Start with a null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) that represents the status quo or default claim.
- State an alternative hypothesis ( $H_A$ ) that represents our research question, i.e. what we're testing for.
- Collect data and often summarize the data as a test statistic, which is usually a measure gauging whether  $H_0$  or  $H_A$  are more plausible.
- Determine the sampling distribution of the test statistic assuming  $H_0$  is true.
  - If the test statistic is too far away from what the  $H_0$  predicts, then reject the  $H_0$  in favor of the  $H_A$ .
- Choose a significance level  $\alpha$  = maximal P (Type I error) that we can tolerate.
- Set the rejection region based on the significance level.
- Reject  $H_0$  if the test statistic falls in the rejection region, and do not reject otherwise.

36

36

## Hypothesis Tests: Wording of Final Conclusion

