

# Hypothesis Testing

(*Hypothesis Testing, Test Statistics, p-Values, t-Tests, Two-Sample Tests, Matched Pairs, and Practical Significance*)

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## 1. The Idea Behind Hypothesis Testing

**Hypothesis testing** is a core statistical method used to determine whether an observed effect is real or could reasonably be due to random chance. It is used to:

- Assess a single sample
- Compare two samples
- Detect whether an intervention or treatment has a true effect

Every hypothesis test is built on two competing statements:

- **Null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ):** Assumes no special effect; represents the status quo.
- **Alternative hypothesis ( $H_1$  or  $H_a$ ):** Claims that a real effect or difference exists.

Hypothesis testing follows **indirect logic**:

1. Assume  $H_0$  is true.
2. Determine whether the observed data are so unlikely under  $H_0$  that  $H_0$  should be rejected.

The central question is:

Are the observed data consistent with  $H_0$ , or are they so unusual that  $H_0$  should be rejected?

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## 2. Test Statistics

A **test statistic** measures how far the observed data deviates from what is expected under the null hypothesis.

A commonly used form is the **Z-statistic**:

$$Z = (\text{Observed} - \text{Expected}) / (\text{SE})$$

Components:

- **Observed:** Value calculated from the sample
- **Expected:** Value predicted under  $H_0$
- **Standard Error (SE):** Natural variability of the statistic under  $H_0$

The Z-value quantifies how unusual the observed result is if  $H_0$  were true. The choice of test statistic must match the structure of the hypothesis (counts, proportions, means, etc.).

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### 3. p-Values as Measures of Evidence

The **p-value** converts the test statistic into a probability-based measure of evidence.

#### Definition:

The p-value is the probability of obtaining a result as extreme as or more extreme than the observed result, **assuming that  $H_0$  is true**.

Key properties:

- Under  $H_0$ , the Z-statistic follows the **standard normal distribution**.
- The p-value is the **tail area** beyond the observed  $|Z|$ .
- **Larger  $|Z| \rightarrow \text{smaller p-value} \rightarrow \text{stronger evidence against } H_0$** .

#### Common decision rule:

- If  $p \leq 0.05$ , reject  $H_0$  (statistically significant)
- If  $p > 0.05$ , do not reject  $H_0$

#### Important warning:

The p-value is **not** the probability that  $H_0$  is true.  $H_0$  is either true or false; the p-value only measures how unlikely the data are **if  $H_0$  were true**.

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## 4. One-Sided vs Two-Sided Tests

- **Two-sided test:** Tests for any difference ( $H_1$ : parameter  $\neq$  value).
- **One-sided test:** Tests only for improvement in one direction ( $H_1$ : parameter  $>$  value or  $<$  value).

In one-sided tests, the p-value is taken from **one tail** of the distribution.

In two-sided tests, the p-value is **double** the one-sided tail area.

A critical rule:

The test type (one-sided or two-sided) **must be chosen before seeing the data**.  
It is invalid to change the test type after checking significance.

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## 5. The t-Test for Small Sample Sizes

When:

- The sample size is **small** (typically  $n < 30$ ), and
- The population standard deviation  **$\sigma$  is unknown**,

the **z-test is no longer valid**. Instead, the **Student's t-test** is used.

The test statistic becomes:

$$t = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{s/\sqrt{n}}$$

where:

- $(s)$  = sample standard deviation
- Degrees of freedom =  $(n - 1)$

The **t-distribution**:

- Has a lower center and **fatter tails** than the normal distribution
- Reflects additional uncertainty from estimating  $\sigma$
- Approaches the normal distribution as sample size increases

For small samples:

- Use **t**-tests instead of z-tests
  - Use **t**-based confidence intervals instead of z-intervals
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## 6. Statistical Significance vs Practical Importance

**Statistical significance does NOT imply practical importance.**

With very large sample sizes:

- The standard error becomes extremely small (square-root law),
- Tiny differences can produce very large test statistics,
- Results may be **highly significant yet practically meaningless**.

To assess **practical importance**, one must examine the **confidence interval**:

- A narrow CI centered near the reference value implies a small real-world effect.

**Connection between CIs and hypothesis tests:**

- A value is rejected by a two-sided 5% test **if and only if** it lies **outside the 95% confidence interval**.

**Types of errors:**

- **Type I error (False Positive):** Rejecting a true  $H_0$
- **Type II error (False Negative):** Failing to reject a false  $H_0$

At  $\alpha = 0.05$ , the probability of a Type I error is at most 5%.

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## 7. Two-Sample z-Tests

The **two-sample z-test** is used to compare:

- Two population proportions, or
- Two population means, when **samples are independent** and  $\sigma$  is known or sample sizes are large.

Hypotheses are written as:

$$H_0: p_1 - p_2 = 0,$$
$$H_1: p_1 - p_2 \neq 0$$

Test statistic:

$$Z = \text{Observed difference} - 0 / \text{SE of the difference}$$

Standard error of the difference:

$$SE = \sqrt{(SE_1^2 + SE_2^2)}$$

A 95% confidence interval for the difference:

$$(\text{Difference}) \pm z \times SE$$

If 0 lies inside the interval, the difference is not statistically significant.

Pooling proportions under H is mathematically valid but usually yields very similar results to unpooled SEs.

Key assumption:

All two-sample z-tests require independent samples.