# W1211 Introduction to Statistics Lecture 23

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## What we talked about last lecture

- ▶ Lare Sample Confidence Interval for a population mean  $\mu$ .
- ▶ Large Sample Confidence Interval for a Population Proportion *p*.

### Cls Based on the t Distribution

- The above discussions are based on the large-sample assumptions. But what can we do if we don't have a large sample?
- ▶ When the distribution under discussion is normal, we do have a solution, that is based on the so-called t distribution.
- ▶ Our assumption right now is  $X_1, X_2, ..., X_n$  IID from *normal* distribution with unknown mean  $\mu$  and unknown  $\sigma$ .

### The t Distribution

 $\blacktriangleright$  When  $\bar{X}$  is the sample mean of a simple random sample from normal under the previous assumptions, then RV

$$T = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{\hat{\sigma}/\sqrt{n}}$$

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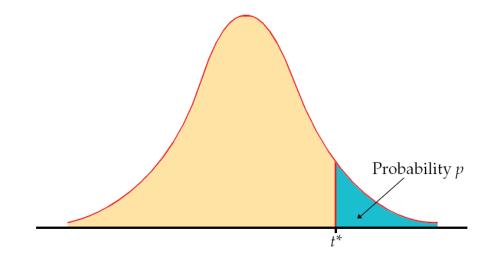
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- ▶ The property of the *t* distribution
  - ▶ Bell-shaped curve centered at 0.
  - ▶ More spread-out than standard normal curve (heavy-tail).
  - ▶ When the degrees of freedom approach infinity, *t* distribution converges to standard normal.

#### t distribution table

Table entry for p and C is the critical value  $t^*$  with probability p lying to its right and probability C lying between  $-t^*$  and  $t^*$ .



#### **TABLE D** t distribution critical values Upper-tail probability *p* df .25 .20 .15 .10 .05 .025 .02 .01 .005 .0025 .001 .00053.078 1.963 31.82 1.000 1.376 6.314 12.71 15.89 63.66 127.3 318.3 636.6 1 4.849 9.925 14.09 2 0.816 1.061 1.386 1.886 2.920 4.303 6.965 22.33 31.60 3 1.250 1.638 2.353 3.182 4.541 5.841 7.453 0.765 0.978 3.482 10.21 12.92 4 0.741 0.941 1.190 1.533 2.132 2.776 2.999 3.747 4.604 5.598 7.173 8.610 5 0.920 1.156 1.476 3.365 4.032 5.893 6.869 0.727 2.015 2.571 2.757 4.773 5.208 0.718 0.906 1.134 1.440 1.943 2.447 2.612 3.143 3.707 4.317 5.959 6 7 0.711 0.896 1.119 1.415 1.895 2.517 2.998 4.785 5.408 2.365 3.499 4.029

# Confidence Interval for $\mu$

Let  $\bar{x}$  and s be the sample mean and sample standard deviation computed from a simple random sample from a normal population with mean  $\mu$ , then a  $100(1-\alpha)\%$  confidence interval for  $\mu$  is

$$(\bar{x}-t_{\alpha/2,n-1}\frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{n}},\bar{x}+t_{\alpha/2,n-1}\frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{n}})$$

An upper confidence interval is

$$\bar{x} + t_{\alpha,n-1} \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{n}}$$

# Confidence Interval Summary

- Confidence Interval is random, the parameter is fixed!
- The general strategy is to find a pivotal quantity and derive the CI from there.
- ▶ We have worked out the formula of Cl's for sample mean  $\mu$  in the following 3 scenarios.

# I. Normal Distribution, Known $\sigma$ , Any Sample Size

▶ Under these assumptions, a  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  CI of sample mean  $\mu$  is given by

$$(\bar{x} - z_{\alpha/2} \cdot \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{x} + z_{\alpha/2} \cdot \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}})$$

# II. General Distribution, Unknown $\sigma$ , Large Sample

▶ Under these assumptions, an approximate  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  CI of sample mean  $\mu$  is given by

$$(\bar{x} - z_{\alpha/2} \cdot \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{n}}, \bar{x} + z_{\alpha/2} \cdot \frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{n}})$$

Notice a special case if the distribution is Bernoulli, we have a more accurate but very complicated formula.

# III. Normal Distribution, Unknown $\sigma$ , Any Sample Size

▶ Under these assumptions, a  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  CI of sample mean  $\mu$  is given by

$$(\bar{x}-t_{\alpha/2,n-1}\cdot\frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{n}},\bar{x}+t_{\alpha/2,n-1}\cdot\frac{\hat{\sigma}}{\sqrt{n}})$$

Here we utilize the t distribution.

# Confirmatory v.s. Exploratory Data Analysis

- There are two traditions in statistics: Exploratory Data Analysis and Confirmatory Data Analysis.
- In Confirmatory Data Analysis (Hypothesis Testing), we have a null-hypothesis that we are testing against, which represents some form of our prior belief about the world. Example: Popularity of violent games and movies has no effect on crime rate.
- ▶ In Exploratory Data Analysis, there is no null-hypothesis. In some sense, our job is to discover new null-hypothesis that we can test against. Example: Collecting various variables from different countries and investigate which variables are most closely associated with crime rate.

# **Hypothesis Testing**

- A statistical hypothesis, or just hypothesis, is a claim or assertion either about the value of a single parameter (population characteristic or characteristic of a probability distribution), about the values of several parameters, or about the form of an entire probability distribution.
- A testing problem usually contains two hypotheses: the null hypothesis, denoted by H<sub>0</sub>, is the claim that is initially assumed to be true (the "prior belief" claim). The alternative hypothesis, denoted by H<sub>a</sub>, is the assertion that is contradictory to H<sub>0</sub>.
- The null hypothesis will be rejected in favor of the alternative only if sample evidence suggests that H<sub>0</sub> is false. If the sample does not strongly contradict H<sub>0</sub>, we will continue to believe in the truth of the null hypothesis. The two possible conclusions from a testing analysis are then reject H<sub>0</sub> or fail to reject H<sub>0</sub>.

# **Examples**

Ex. A factory claims that less than 10% of the components they produce are defective. A consumer group is skeptical of the claim and checks a random sample of 300 components and finds that 39 are defective. Is there evidence that more than 10% of all components made at the factory are defective?

$$H_0: p \le 0.10$$
  $H_a: p > 0.10$ 

Ex. We are interested in height of all Columbia students. In a sample of 12 students, the sample mean is 66.30 inches, and the sample s.d. is 4.35 inches. Should we reject the null hypothesis  $H_0$ :  $\mu$  = 68 vs  $H_a$ :  $\mu \neq$  68?

#### Remarks

- In our treatment of hypothesis testing,  $H_0$  will always be stated as an equality claim. If  $\theta$  denotes the parameter of interest, the null hypothesis will have the form  $H_0$ :  $\theta = \theta_0$ .
- The alternative to the null hypothesis  $H_0$ :  $\theta = \theta_0$  will usually look like one of the following three forms:
- 1.  $H_a$ :  $\theta > \theta_0$  (in which case the implicit null hypothesis is  $\theta \le \theta_0$ ).
- 2.  $H_a$ :  $\theta < \theta_0$  (in which case the implicit null hypothesis is  $\theta \ge \theta_0$ ).
- 3.  $H_a$ :  $\theta \neq \theta_0$ .
- 4.  $H_a$ :  $\theta = \theta_1 \neq \theta_0$  (simple alternative).
- The value  $\theta_0$  separates the alternative from the null and is called the null value. The null and alternative are not treated equivalently, once a statement is in the null hypothesis, we will not easily reject it unless we have enough evidence.

# **Motivating example**

Ex. Suppose we have a biased coin, we believe that it has probability 95% of having a head in a flip. Alternatively, it could also have probability 5% of having a head. Can you design a simple test to see if the coin has probability 95% of having heads?

Simple alternative:  $H_0$ : p = 0.95  $H_a$ : p = 0.05

#### **Test Procedures**

A test procedure is specified by the following:

- 1. Find a test statistic, a function of the sample data on which the decision (reject  $H_0$ ).
- 2. Construct a rejection region, the set of all test statistic values for which  $H_0$  will be rejected.

The null hypothesis will then be rejected if and only if the observed or computed test Statistic value falls in the rejection region.

Can you construct a test procedure for the previous example?

# **Example cont.**

Ex. (Biased coin cont.) In order to test if p = 0.95 we decide to conduct one experiment. We are going to flip this biased coin once, if it comes out a head, we will accept the null hypothesis, if it comes out a tail, we will reject the null hypothesis.

Test statistic: X = outcome of the first flip (Bernoulli rv.)

Rejection region: {X: X = 0}

Any other test statistics?

What are the odds that we'll make a mistake in our decision?