## 1. Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis testing is a statistical method used to make decisions or inferences about population parameters based on sample data. It involves formulating two competing hypotheses and using sample data to determine which hypothesis is more plausible.

# 1.1 Introduction to Hypothesis Testing

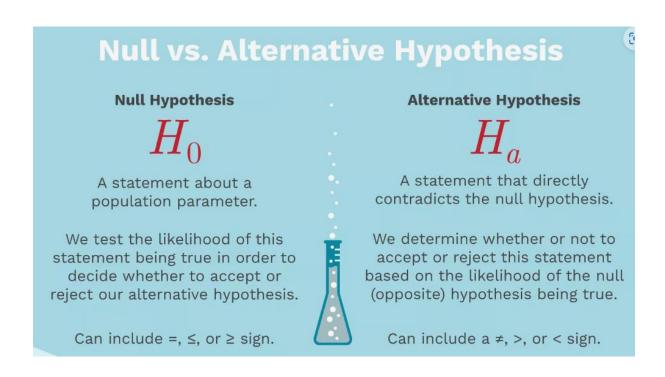
Hypothesis testing involves several key concepts, including the null and alternative hypotheses, Type I and Type II errors, and the significance level. These concepts form the foundation of hypothesis testing and guide the process of making statistical decisions.

## 1.1.1 Null Hypothesis (H<sub>0</sub>)

- **Definition:** The null hypothesis  $(H_0)$  is a statement that there is no effect or no difference, and it serves as the starting assumption for the hypothesis test.
- **Purpose:** It provides a baseline to compare against the alternative hypothesis.
- **Example:** In testing a new drug, the null hypothesis might state that the drug has no effect on the disease.

## 1.1.2 Alternative Hypothesis (H<sub>1</sub>)

- **Definition:** The alternative hypothesis  $(H_1)$  is a statement that indicates the presence of an effect or a difference.
- **Purpose:** It represents the hypothesis that researchers aim to support with evidence from the sample data.
- **Example:** In the drug testing scenario, the alternative hypothesis might state that the drug has a significant effect on the disease.



# 1.1.3 Type I and Type II Errors

- Type I Error (False Positive): Occurs when the null hypothesis is rejected when it is actually true.
  - $\circ$  **Probability of Type I Error:** Denoted by  $\alpha$  (alpha), also known as the significance level.
  - o **Consequence:** Incorrectly concluding that there is an effect or difference when there isn't one.
- Type II Error (False Negative): Occurs when the null hypothesis is not rejected when it is actually false.
  - o **Probability of Type II Error:** Denoted by β (beta).
  - o **Consequence:** Failing to detect an effect or difference that actually exists.

$H_0$ = The product does NOT make a difference in user experience.				
	Study rejects H <sub>0</sub>	Study fails to reject H <sub>0</sub>		
H <sub>o</sub> is actually true	False Positive Type I Error	True Negative Correct Outcome		
H <sub>o</sub> is actually false	True Positive Correct Outcome	False Negative Type II Error		

## 1.1.4 Significance Level (alpha)

- **Definition:** The significance level  $(\alpha)$  is the threshold for rejecting the null hypothesis. It represents the probability of making a Type I error.
- Common Values: Typical values for  $\alpha$  are 0.05, 0.01, and 0.10.
- Interpretation: An  $\alpha$  of 0.05 means that there is a 5% risk of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is true.
- Usage: If the p-value obtained from the test is less than or equal to  $\alpha$ , the null hypothesis is rejected in favour of the alternative hypothesis.

## 1.2 Steps in Hypothesis Testing

Hypothesis testing is a systematic process used to determine whether there is enough evidence in a sample to infer that a certain condition holds true for the entire population. The following steps outline the typical procedure for conducting a hypothesis test.

## 1.2.1 Formulating Hypotheses

## Formulate the Null and Alternative Hypotheses:

- **Null Hypothesis (H0):** The hypothesis that there is no effect or no difference. It serves as the default assumption.
- Alternative Hypothesis (H1H\_1H1): The hypothesis that there is an effect or a difference. It is what you want to provide evidence for.

# **Types of Alternative Hypotheses:**

- **Two-tailed:** Tests for any difference from the null hypothesis value.
- One-tailed: Tests for a difference in a specific direction.

# 1.2.2 Selecting a Significance Level

# **Choose the Significance Level (α):**

- The significance level, denoted by  $\alpha$ , is the threshold for deciding whether to reject the null hypothesis.
- Common choices for  $\alpha$ \alpha are 0.05, 0.01, and 0.10.
- Example:  $\alpha = 0.05$  There is a 5% risk of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is actually true.

## 1.2.3 Choosing the Appropriate Test

## **Select the Appropriate Statistical Test:**

The choice of test depends on the type of data and the hypotheses.

- One-sample t-test: Tests whether the mean of a single sample is different from a known value.
- **Two-sample t-test:** Tests whether the means of two independent samples are different.
- Paired t-test: Tests whether the means of two related samples are different.
- Chi-square test: Tests for independence between categorical variables.
- **ANOVA:** Tests whether the means of three or more groups are different.
- **Z-test:** Tests whether the mean of a sample is different from a known value, typically used for large sample sizes.

# 1.2.4 Computing the Test Statistic

#### **Calculate the Test Statistic:**

- The test statistic is a standardized value that is calculated from sample data during a hypothesis test.
- It is used to determine whether to reject the null hypothesis.
- Example for a one-sample t-test:
  - Calculate the sample mean  $(\bar{x})$ .
  - Compute the standard error ( $SE=\frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$ ), where s is the sample standard deviation and n is the sample size.
  - Calculate the t-statistic:  $t=rac{ar{x}-\mu}{SE}$ .

## 1.2.5 Making a Decision (Reject or Fail to Reject H0)

# Compare the Test Statistic to the Critical Value or P-value:

### • P-value approach:

- o The p-value is the probability of obtaining a test statistic at least as extreme as the one observed, assuming the null hypothesis is true.
- o If the p-value ≤α\leq \alpha≤α, reject the null hypothesis.
- o If the p-value  $> \alpha \setminus alpha\alpha$ , fail to reject the null hypothesis.

## • Critical value approach:

- o Determine the critical value(s) from the statistical distribution that corresponds to the test (e.g., t-distribution, z-distribution).
- Compare the test statistic to the critical value(s).
- o If the test statistic falls in the rejection region, reject the null hypothesis.
- o Otherwise, fail to reject the null hypothesis.

#### Make a Decision:

- Based on the comparison, decide whether to reject or fail to reject the null hypothesis.
- Example: If the p-value is 0.03 and  $\alpha$ \alpha\alpha is 0.05, reject the null hypothesis.

## **Example of Hypothesis Testing**

1. **Scenario:** A company claims that their new battery lasts longer than the old battery, which has a mean life of 300 hours.

# 2. Formulate Hypotheses:

- o Null Hypothesis (H<sub>0</sub>):  $\mu$ ≤300 (The mean life of the new battery is less than or equal to 300 hours)
- o Alternative Hypothesis (H<sub>1</sub>):  $\mu$ >300 (The mean life of the new battery is greater than 300 hours)
- 3. **Collect Data:** Sample data of the new battery's life spans.
- 4. Calculate Test Statistic: Using appropriate statistical methods (e.g., t-test), calculate the test statistic.
- 5. **Determine P-value:** Calculate the p-value associated with the test statistic.
- 6. Compare P-value with Significance Level (α\alphaα):
  - ∘ If p-value  $\leq \alpha$ : Reject H<sub>0</sub>
  - o If p-value  $> \alpha$ : Fail to reject H<sub>0</sub>.
- 7. **Make a Decision:** Based on the comparison, conclude whether there is sufficient evidence to support the company's claim.

# **Case Study:**

The null hypothesis (H0) is a statement about the population mean lifespan of the new batteries compared to the known population mean lifespan of the old batteries.

# **Null Hypothesis (H0):**

H0:  $\mu$ =300.

This means that the mean lifespan of the new batteries is equal to the mean lifespan of the old batteries, which is 300 hours.

# **Alternative Hypothesis (H1):**

H1:  $\mu \neq 300$ 

This would mean that the mean lifespan of the new batteries is different from the mean lifespan of the old batteries (it could be either less than or greater than 300 hours).

# **Hypothesis Testing:**

- **Null Hypothesis (H0):** The mean lifespan of the new batteries is 300 hours.
- Alternative Hypothesis (H1): The mean lifespan of the new batteries is not 300 hours

## 2. t-Tests

#### 2.1 One-Sample t-Test

A one-sample t-test is used to determine whether the mean of a single sample is significantly different from a known or hypothesized population mean. This is useful when you have a single sample and you want to compare its mean to a specific value.

## 2.1.1 Purpose and Application

### **Purpose:**

• To test if the mean of a sample is significantly different from a known or hypothesized population mean.

# **Application:**

- Compare the average test score of a class to the national average.
- Assess whether the average lifespan of a new product differs from an established standard.

## 2.1.2 Assumptions

- 1. **Random Sampling:** The sample data should be randomly selected from the population.
- 2. **Normality:** The distribution of the sample means should be approximately normal. This is especially important for small sample sizes (n < 30). For larger sample sizes, the Central Limit Theorem ensures normality.
- 3. Scale of Measurement: The data should be continuous (interval or ratio scale).

# 2.1.3 Calculation of Test Statistic

The test statistic for a one-sample t-test is calculated using the following formula:

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

#### Where:

- $\bar{x}$  is the sample mean.
- ullet  $\mu_0$  is the hypothesized population mean
- ullet is the sample standard deviation.
- n is the sample size.

Steps to calculate the t-statistic:

- 1. Calculate the sample mean  $(\bar{x})$ .
- 2. Calculate the sample standard deviation (s).
- 3. Calculate the standard error of the mean (SE):

$$SE = \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$$

4. Compute the t-statistic:

$$t = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{SE}$$

# 2.1.4 Interpreting Results

# 1. Calculate the p-value:

o The p-value represents the probability of obtaining a test statistic as extreme as the one observed, assuming the null hypothesis is true.

## 2. Compare the p-value to the significance level (α\alphaα):

- o Common significance levels are 0.05, 0.01, or 0.10.
- o If  $p \le \alpha$ , reject the null hypothesis.
- o If  $p > \alpha$ , fail to reject the null hypothesis.

## 3. Decision:

- **Reject H0:** There is enough evidence to conclude that the sample mean is significantly different from the hypothesized population mean.
- Fail to reject H0: There is not enough evidence to conclude that the sample mean is significantly different from the hypothesized population mean.

#### 2.2 Two-Sample t-Test

The two-sample t-test compares the means of two independent or paired groups to determine if there is a significant difference between them.

# 2.2.1 Independent Samples t-Test

**Independent samples t-test** is used when comparing the means of two independent groups.

# **Assumptions and Application**

# • Assumptions:

- 1. The samples are independent.
- 2. The data in each group are normally distributed.
- 3. The variances of the two groups are equal (homogeneity of variance).

# • Application:

o Compare the average test scores between two different teaching methods.

## **Calculation of Test Statistic**

The test statistic for an independent samples t-test is calculated using:

$$t=rac{ar{X_1}-ar{X_2}}{s_p\cdot\sqrt{rac{1}{n_1}+rac{1}{n_2}}}$$

Where:

- ullet  $ar{X_1}$  and  $ar{X_2}$  are the sample means.
- $s_p$  is the pooled standard deviation.
- $n_1$  and  $n_2$  are the sample sizes.

# 2.2.2 Paired Samples t-Test

Paired samples t-test is used when comparing the means of two related groups (e.g., measurements before and after treatment).

## **Assumptions and Application**

# • Assumptions:

- 1. The samples are dependent (paired).
- 2. The differences between the paired observations are normally distributed.

# • Application:

 Compare the average test scores of students before and after using a new teaching method.

## **Calculation of Test Statistic**

The test statistic for a paired samples t-test is calculated using:

$$t=rac{ar{d}}{rac{ar{s}_d}{\sqrt{n}}}$$

Where:

- $\bar{d}$  is the mean of the differences.
- ullet  $s_d$  is the standard deviation of the differences.
- *n* is the number of pairs.

## 2.3 Assumptions of t-Tests

t-Tests are widely used statistical tests that rely on specific assumptions to provide valid results. Understanding these assumptions is crucial for correctly applying t-tests and interpreting their results.

#### 2.3.1 Normality

**Normality** refers to the assumption that the data (or the differences between paired data) are approximately normally distributed. This assumption is more critical for small sample sizes. For larger sample sizes (n > 30), the Central Limit Theorem suggests that the sampling distribution of the mean will be approximately normal regardless of the shape of the population distribution.

# • How to check for normality:

- o **Graphical Methods:** Histograms, Q-Q plots (quantile-quantile plots), and box plots can help visualize whether the data follows a normal distribution.
- Statistical Tests: Shapiro-Wilk test, Kolmogorov-Smirnov test, and Anderson-Darling test can be used to formally test for normality.

## 2.3.2 Homogeneity of Variances

**Homogeneity of variances** (also known as homoscedasticity) assumes that the variances of the populations being compared are equal. This assumption is crucial for the independent samples t-test but not for the paired samples t-test.

## • How to check for homogeneity of variances:

- o **Graphical Methods:** Box plots can help visualize the spread of data.
- **Statistical Tests:** Levene's test and Bartlett's test can be used to formally test for equality of variances.

## 2.3.3 Independence

**Independence** assumes that the observations in the data set are independent of each other. This means that the value of one observation does not influence or depend on the value of another observation.

# • How to ensure independence:

- o Proper experimental design: Random sampling and random assignment can help ensure that the samples are independent.
- Check the study design: Confirm that the data collection methods do not introduce dependencies.

## 3. Chi-Squared Test

The Chi-Squared test is a non-parametric statistical test used to determine if there is a significant association between categorical variables or if the observed frequencies of events differ from expected frequencies.

## 3.1 Introduction to Chi-Squared Test

# 3.1.1 Purpose and Application

The Chi-Squared test is used for:

- Goodness of Fit Test: Determines if a sample matches an expected distribution.
- **Test of Independence**: Determines if there is a significant association between two categorical variables.

## 3.1.2 Types of Chi-Squared Tests

- **Goodness of Fit Test**: Used to compare the observed distribution of a single categorical variable to an expected distribution.
- **Test of Independence**: Used to assess whether two categorical variables are independent of each other.

## 3.1.3 Assumptions

- The data should be in the form of frequencies or counts of cases.
- The categories are mutually exclusive.
- The expected frequency for each category should be at least 5 to ensure the validity of the test.

#### 3.2 Goodness of Fit Test

The Goodness of Fit test compares the observed frequencies of events to the expected frequencies based on a specific hypothesis.

## 3.2.1 Formulating Hypotheses

- Null Hypothesis (H0): The observed frequencies match the expected frequencies.
- Alternative Hypothesis (H1): The observed frequencies do not match the expected frequencies.

#### 3.2.2 Calculation of Test Statistic

The test statistic for the Chi-Squared test is calculated as follows:

$$\chi^2 = \sum rac{(O_i - E_i)^2}{E_i}$$

where  $O_i$  is the observed frequency and  $E_i$  is the expected frequency.

# 3.2.3 Degrees of Freedom

The degrees of freedom for the Goodness of Fit test is calculated as:

Degrees of Freedom = Number of Categories – 1

# 3.2.4 Interpreting Results

- Compare the calculated Chi-Squared statistic to the critical value from the Chi-Squared distribution table based on the degrees of freedom and the significance level (alpha).
- If the calculated statistic is greater than the critical value, reject the null hypothesis.

### 3.3 Test of Independence

The Chi-Squared Test of Independence is used to determine whether there is a significant association between two categorical variables.

## 3.3.1 Formulating Hypotheses

- Null Hypothesis (H0): The two categorical variables are independent (no association).
- Alternative Hypothesis (H1): The two categorical variables are not independent (there is an association).

## 3.3.2 Contingency Tables

A contingency table (or cross-tabulation) displays the frequency distribution of the variables. Each cell in the table shows the count of occurrences for a combination of the two variables.

#### 3.3.3 Calculation of Test Statistic

The Chi-Squared test statistic for independence is calculated as:

$$\chi^2 = \sum \frac{(O_{ij} - E_{ij})^2}{E_{ij}}$$

where:

- ullet  $O_{ij}$  is the observed frequency in the cell corresponding to the ith row and jth column.

$$oldsymbol{\bullet} E_{ij}$$
 is the expected frequency, calculated as:  $E_{ij} = rac{(\mathrm{Row} \, \mathrm{Total}_i imes \mathrm{Column} \, \mathrm{Total}_j)}{\mathrm{Grand} \, \mathrm{Total}}$ 

# **3.3.4 Interpreting Results**

• Compare the calculated Chi-Squared statistic to the critical value from the Chi-Squared distribution table based on the degrees of freedom and the significance level (alpha).

# • Degrees of Freedom:

Calculated as:

Degrees of Freedom=(Number of Rows-1)×(Number of Columns-1)

• If the calculated statistic is greater than the critical value, reject the null hypothesis.