Notes

Introduction to Statistics

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Hypothesis Test for ,

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Objectives

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• Carry out a one-mean t test for a population mean μ when the population standard deviation σ is unknown.

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Hypothesis Test for $oldsymbol{\mu}$ when $oldsymbol{\sigma}$ is Unknown

Hypothesis Test for μ when σ is Unknown (9.5)

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Introduction to the One-Mean t Test

 Usually the population standard deviation σ isn't known, so we can't use the one-mean z test for μ.

Instead, we **estimate** σ by the sample standard deviation s, and then use the <u>one-mean t test</u> described ahead.

The test is used when we have a **random sample** from a **population**.

We'll use the sample to decide if the population mean μ is different from some claimed value $\mu_0.$

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Notes

- The null hypothesis is:
- Null Hypothesis:

 $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$

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• The alternative hypothesis will depend on what we're trying to substantiate:

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Alternative Hypothesis: The alternative hypothesis will be one of

1. $H_a: \mu > \mu_0$

2. $H_a: \mu < \mu_0$

(one-sided, upper-tailed test) (one-sided, lower-tailed test)

3. $H_a: \mu \neq \mu_0$ (two-sided, two-tailed test)

depending on what we're trying to substantiate in our study.

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• The test statistic for the one-mean t test for μ is

One-Mean T Test Statistic:

When

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

 $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$

is true, the **sampling distribution** of the test statistic t is a t distribution with n - 1 df.

(The *one-mean* t test is valid if either the sample is from a **normal** population or the sample size n is **large** $(n \ge 30)$.)

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 t measures (approximately) how many standard errors x̄ is away from the claimed value μ₀.

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1. Values of t close to zero provide almost no evidence against the null hypothesis $H_0: \mu = \mu_0.$

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- 2. Positive values of t provide evidence against the null hypothesis in favor of $H_a: \mu > \mu_0.$
- 3. Negative values of t provide evidence against the null hypothesis in favor of $H_a: \mu < \mu_0.$
- 4. Positive and negative values of t provide evidence against the null hypothesis in favor of $H_a: \mu \neq \mu_0.$

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• The *p-value* is the probability that just by chance (under H_0) we'd get a test statistic value as far from zero, in the direction predicted by H_a , as the observed value.

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- As always, after choosing a level of significance α, we reject H₀ if p-value < α, otherwise fail reject H₀.
- The next example illustrates a two-tailed t test.

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The two the come after it illustrate one-tailed tests.

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Example

A quality control engineer monitors a machine that puts cereal into boxes.

According to the label, each box is supposed to contain ${\bf 16}$ oz of cereal.

The machine will need to be adjusted if the boxes are systematically being **under-filled** or **over-filled**.

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To decide if the boxes are being **under-filled or overfilled**, the engineer will test the **hypotheses**

$$H_0: \mu = 10$$
$$H_a: \mu \neq 10$$

where μ is the true (unknown) population mean weight.

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t

A random sample of ten boxes gives

 $\bar{x} = 16.6$ and s = 0.9.

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Thus the observed test statistic is

$$= \frac{\frac{p_0}{s/\sqrt{n}}}{\frac{16.6-16}{0.9/\sqrt{10}}}$$
$$= 2.11.$$

Thus the sample mean weight, $\bar{x} = 16.6$, is about 2.11 standard errors above 16 ounces.

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The **p-value** is the **probability** that we'd get a t value this far away from zero (in either direction) by chance **if** the **population** mean μ was 16.

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From the two tail areas of the t distribution with n - 1 = 9 df, to the right of 2.11 and left of -2.11,

 $p-value = 2 \times 0.033 = 0.066.$

(The value 0.033 was obtained from the **table** showing **areas** to the right of t.)

Thus we'd get a result like the one we got **6.6%** of the time even if the population mean μ was **16** ounces.

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Using a level of significance $\alpha=0.05,$ the decision rule is

Reject H_0 if p-value < 0.05. Fail to reject H_0 if p-value ≥ 0.05 .

Because $0.066 \ge 0.05$, we fail to reject H_0 .

There's **no statistically significant evidence** that the population mean cereal box weight μ is different from 16 ounces.

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The result that the engineer got (by taking a random sample) can be explained by chance variation (sampling error).

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Exercise

A study was designed to find out if **dietary calcium reduces blood pressure**.

Ten men were given a calcium supplement for 12 weeks. Blood pressure was measured both *before* and *after* the 12-week period.

The data are the *changes* in blood pressure for the 10 men:

-7 4 -18 -17 3 5 -1 -10 -11 2

A negative value means the blood pressure decreased.

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The sample mean and standard deviation of the blood pressure *changes* are

$$\bar{x} = -5.00$$
 and $s = 8.74$

We'll carry out a **one-mean** *t* **test** to decide if calcium **lowers blood pressure**.

a) State the hypotheses that should be tested.

b) Calculate the test statistic.

Hint: You should get -1.81.

c) Determine the p-value.

Hint: You should get 0.053.

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d) State the conclusion using a level of significance $\alpha = 0.05$, in which case the decision criterion is

Reject H_0 if p-value < 0.05. Fail to reject H_0 if p-value ≥ 0.05 .

- e) Interpret the result: Is there statistically significant evidence that calcium lowers blood pressure?
- f) If instead we had used a **significance level** $\alpha = 0.10$, would the conclusion have been different? Explain

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Exercise

In the U.S., the mean number of newly decayed teeth an individual gets per year is **0.30**.

To investigate the **claim** that **sugar increases the decay rate** of teeth, 25 adults were examined and then given a sugar solution to supplement all their meals.

After one year, the mean and standard deviation of the number of newly decayed teeth for the group were

$$ar{x}=0.60$$
 and $s=0.45$

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We'll carry out a **one-mean** *t* **test** to decide if there's statistically significant evidence that the true (unknown) **population mean** tooth decay rate μ for people given a sugar solution is **greater than 0.30**.

- a) State the hypotheses that should be tested.
- b) Calculate the test statistic.

Hint: You should get 3.33.

c) Determine the p-value.

Hint: You should get 0.002.

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Data Snooping: Don't Do It!

• The direction (left-tailed, right-tailed, or two-tailed) for *H_a* should be chosen **before** you examine the data.

It should indicate what you **expect** to find when you carry out your study.

If you don't have a particular direction in mind for H_a before examining the data, use the two-tailed test.

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• **Data snooping** refers to first examining the data and then choosing the direction for H_a that best matches what you already see in the data.

Data snooping is considered "**cheating**" because it leads to an **artificially small p-value** – one that's *half as large* as what it would've been if you'd done a two-tailed test.

• The next example shows how **data snooping** can lead an **artificially small p-value** and in turn to **mistakenly rejecting** *H*₀ when you shouldn't have.

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Example

Suppose in the cereal-box weight study from the earlier example that the engineer "cheats" (data snoops) and decides, *after* noticing that $\bar{x} = 16.6$ is *greater* than 16, to do an **upper-tailed test** of

 $H_0: \ \mu = 16$ $H_a: \ \mu > 16$

What would the p-value be?

Answer: 0.033 (just the upper tail area).

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Would the **conclusion** (using $\alpha = 0.05$ still) **be different** from the one reached in the earlier example (when a two-tailed test was performed)?

Answer: **Yes**. In this case, the **null hypothesis** would (mistakenly) be **rejected**.

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