Introduction to Statistics

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Topics

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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.

Hypothesis Test for μ when σ is Unknown (9.5)

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 .

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

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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 **one-mean** t **test** 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** μ_0 .

• The null hypothesis is:

Null Hypothesis:

$$H_0: \mu = \mu_0$$

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

Alternative Hypothesis: The alternative hypothesis will be one of

- 1. H_a : $\mu > \mu_0$ (one-sided, upper-tailed test)
- 2. H_a : $\mu < \mu_0$ (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.

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

One-Mean T Test Statistic:

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

When

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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** $(n \ge 30)$.)

• t measures (approximately) how many standard errors \bar{x} is away from the claimed value μ_0 .

1. Values of t close to zero provide almost no evidence against the null hypothesis

$$H_0: \mu = \mu_0.$$

2. Positive values of t provide evidence against the null hypothesis in favor of

$$H_a: \mu > \mu_0.$$

 Negative values of t provide evidence against the null hypothesis in favor of

$$H_a: \mu < \mu_0.$$

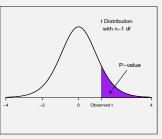
4. Positive and negative values of t provide evidence against the null hypothesis in favor of

$$H_a: \mu \neq \mu_0.$$

• 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.

1. **P-value** = Area to the **right** of the observed t if the alternative hypothesis is $H_a: \mu > \mu_0$.

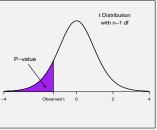
P-Value for Upper-Tailed t Test



Values of t

2. **P-value** = Area to the **left** of the observed t if the alternative hypothesis is $H_a: \mu < \mu_0$.

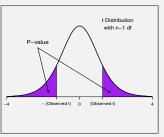
P-Value for Lower-Tailed t Test



Values of t

3. **P-value** = Area to the **left** of -|t| **and right** of |t| if the alternative hypothesis is $H_a: \mu \neq \mu_0$.





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Example

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

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

$$H_0: \mu = 16$$

$$H_a: \mu \neq 16$$

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

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A random sample of ten boxes gives

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

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

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

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.

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.)

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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.

Reject H_0 if p-value < 0.05.

Fail to reject H_0 if p-value ≥ 0.05 .

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

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

Exercise

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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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 and $s = 8.74$

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Hint: You should get -1.81.

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c) Determine the p-value.

Hint: You should get 0.053.

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

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e) **Interpret** the result: Is there **statistically significant** evidence that calcium **lowers blood pressure**?

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

$$\bar{x} = 0.60$$
 and $s = 0.45$.

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Hint: You should get 0.002.

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• 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** 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 H₀ when you shouldn't have.

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

$$H_0:~\mu~=~16$$

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$$H_a: \mu > 16$$

What would the **p-value** be?

Answer: **0.033** (just the **upper** tail area).

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