

# 7 One-Sample Hypothesis Tests

MTH 3240 Environmental Statistics

Spring 2020

# Objectives

## Objectives:

- Explain the meanings of the terms hypothesis, test statistic, level of significance, p-value, statistical significance.
- Carry out a one-sample  $t$  test for a population mean using the rejection region and p-value approaches.

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# Introduction

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- A ***hypothesis test*** uses data to **decide** between two ***hypotheses***.
- The ***alternative hypothesis***,  $H_a$ , is the claim that's of primary interest.

The ***null hypothesis***,  $H_0$ , is the claim that's not of interest.

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- The decision will be based on the value of a **test statistic** and a **decision rule**.
- **"Failing to reject"**  $H_0$  only means there was insufficient evidence to reject it, *not* that there was sufficient evidence to accept it.

## Example

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A logging company **claims** that  $\mu$  is **less than 32** inches. The government **claims** it's **at least 32**.

Before the government will allow logging of the forest, it requires **convincing evidence** that  $\mu$  is **less than 32**.

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The company is allowed to take a **random sample** of trees and use the mean diameter  $\bar{X}$  to justify its claim ...

... but it must convince the government that  $\bar{X}$  didn't fall **below 32** just as a result of **sampling variation** (chance).

The logging company, which is conducting the study, is **interested** in the claim that  $\mu$  is **less than 32** inches.



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The **null hypothesis**, therefore, is that  $\mu$  is **32 inches or larger**.

These are stated as

$$H_0 : \mu \geq 32$$

$$H_a : \mu < 32$$

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If that happens, a **hypothesis test** can be used to decide whether it's just due to **sampling variation**.

Rather than basing the decision on  $\bar{X}$ , it will be easier if we first **standardize** it, and use the **test statistic**

$$t = \frac{\bar{X} - 32}{S_{\bar{X}}},$$

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where  $S_{\bar{X}}$  is the (estimated) **standard error** of  $\bar{X}$ ,

$$S_{\bar{X}} = \frac{S}{\sqrt{n}}.$$

- Often a set of hypotheses such as

$$H_0 : \mu \geq 32$$

$$H_a : \mu < 32$$

is stated as

$$H_0 : \mu = 32$$

$$H_a : \mu < 32$$

(the idea being that if the data provide enough evidence to reject  $H_0 : \mu = 32$  in favor of  $H_a : \mu < 32$ , they provide *at least enough* evidence to reject  $H_0 : \mu \geq 32$ ).



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Both involve **comparing** the **observed test statistic** value to the **sampling distribution** the test statistic would follow if  $H_0$  was true.

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Both involve **comparing** the **observed test statistic** value to the **sampling distribution** the test statistic would follow **if  $H_0$  was true**.

We call this the ***null distribution***.

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**Smaller  $\alpha$  values require stronger evidence.**

The most common choices for  $\alpha$  are **0.01**, **0.05**, and **0.10**.



### Decision Rule for Rejection Region Approach:

**Reject  $H_0$**  if the observed test statistic value falls in the rejection region.

**Fail to reject  $H_0$**  if it doesn't fall in the rejection region.

- Using  $\alpha = 0.05$ , the **rejection region** consists of values in the **extreme 5%** of the **null distribution**, in the direction specified by  $H_a$ .

### Decision Rule for Rejection Region Approach:

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(More generally, it's the extreme **100 $\alpha$ %** of the distribution).

### Decision Rule for P-Value Approach:

**Reject  $H_0$**  if the p-value is less than 0.05 (or more generally, less than  $\alpha$ ).

**Fail to reject  $H_0$**  if the p-value isn't less than 0.05 ( $\alpha$ ).

- The ***p-value*** is the **probability** (under  $H_0$ ) of getting a test statistic value **as extreme** (in the direction specified by  $H_a$ ) as the **observed value**.

- **Smaller p-values provide more compelling evidence against  $H_0$ .**

- The **rejection region** and **p-value** approaches **always** lead to the **same conclusion**.

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This is because (as we'll see later) the **test statistic** will fall in the **rejection region** if (and only if) the **p-value** is **less than  $\alpha$** .

- For a given choice of  $\alpha$ , **if  $H_0$  is rejected**, we say the result is ***statistically significant*** at the  $\alpha$  level.

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A **statistically significant** result is one for which **sampling variation (chance) can be ruled out** as being the sole explanation for the evidence supporting  $H_a$ .



## Steps in Performing a Hypothesis Test

1. Identify the population parameter(s) of interest.
2. State the null and alternative hypotheses.
3. Choose an appropriate test procedure and check any assumptions (e.g. normality of the data).
4. Choose a level of significance  $\alpha$ .
5. Compute the test statistic.
6. Find the p-value **or** determine if the test statistic falls in the rejection region.
7. State the conclusion ("reject" or "fail to reject"  $H_0$ ).

# The One-Sample $t$ Test

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- The ***one-sample  $t$  test*** is a hypothesis test for an **(unknown) population mean  $\mu$** .
- The **null hypothesis** is that  $\mu$  is equal to some ***claimed value  $\mu_0$*** .

**Null Hypothesis:**

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

- The **alternative hypothesis** is one of the following.

### Alternative Hypothesis:

1.  $H_a : \mu > \mu_0$  (upper-tailed test)
2.  $H_a : \mu < \mu_0$  (lower-tailed test)
3.  $H_a : \mu \neq \mu_0$  (two-tailed test)

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### One-Sample $t$ Test Statistic:

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- $t$  indicates how many **standard errors**  $\bar{X}$  is **away from**  $\mu_0$ , and in what direction (positive or negative).

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... we'd expect  $\bar{X}$  to be close  $\mu_0$ .
  - But if  $H_a$  was true, ...  
... we'd expect  $\bar{X}$  to differ from  $\mu_0$  in the direction specified by  $H_a$
- Thus ...
  1.  $t$  will be approximately **zero** (most likely) if  $H_0$  is true.
  2. It will **differ from zero** (most likely) in the direction specified by  $H_a$  if  $H_a$  is true.

1. *Large positive* values of  $t$  provide evidence in favor of  $H_a : \mu > \mu_0$ .
2. *Large negative* values of  $t$  provide evidence in favor of  $H_a : \mu < \mu_0$ .
3. *Both large positive and large negative* values of  $t$  provide evidence in favor of  $H_a : \mu \neq \mu_0$ .

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### Sampling Distribution of the Test Statistic Under $H_0$ :

If  $t$  is the one-sample  $t$  test statistic, then when

$$H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$$

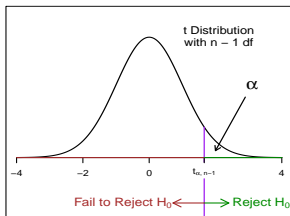
is true,

$$t \sim t(n - 1).$$

- **P-values** and **rejection regions** are obtained from the appropriate tail(s) of the  $t(n - 1)$  **distribution**, as shown on the next slides.

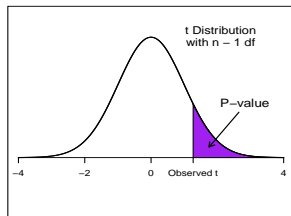
## 1. $H_a : \mu > \mu_0$ (Upper-Tailed Test)

Rejection Region for Upper-Tailed  $t$  Test



Values of  $t$

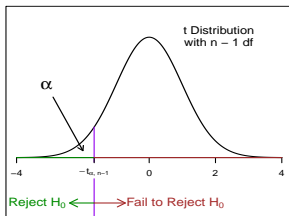
P-Value for Upper-Tailed  $t$  Test



Values of  $t$

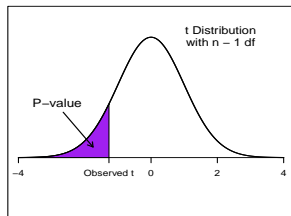
## 2. $H_a : \mu < \mu_0$ (Lower-Tailed Test)

Rejection Region for Lower-Tailed  $t$  Test



Values of  $t$

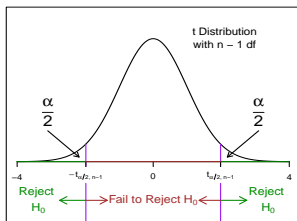
P-Value for Lower-Tailed  $t$  Test



Values of  $t$

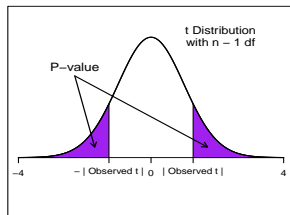
### 3. $H_a : \mu \neq \mu_0$ (Two-Tailed Test)

Rejection Region for Two-Tailed  $t$  Test



Values of  $t$

P-Value for Two-Tailed  $t$  Test



Values of  $t$

## One-Sample $t$ Test for $\mu$

**Assumptions:** The data  $x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n$  are a random sample from a population and either the population is *normal* or  $n$  is *large*.

**Null hypothesis:**  $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$ .

**Test statistic value:**  $t = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{s/\sqrt{n}}$ .

**Decision rule:** Reject  $H_0$  if p-value  $< \alpha$  or  $t$  is in rejection region.



## One-Sample $t$ Test for $\mu$

Alternative hypothesis	P-value = area under $t$ distribution with $n - 1$ d.f.:	Rejection region = $t$ values such that:*
$H_a : \mu > \mu_0$	to the right of $t$	$t > t_{\alpha, n-1}$
$H_a : \mu < \mu_0$	to the left of $t$	$t < -t_{\alpha, n-1}$
$H_a : \mu \neq \mu_0$	to the left of $- t $ and right of $ t $	$t > t_{\alpha/2, n-1}$ or $t < -t_{\alpha/2, n-1}$

\*  $t_{\alpha, n-1}$  is the  $100(1 - \alpha)$ th percentile of the  $t$  distribution with  $n - 1$  d.f.

## Exercise

In the previous example, the logging company was interested in testing hypotheses that can be stated as

$$H_0 : \mu = 32$$

$$H_a : \mu < 32$$

where  $\mu$  is the true (unknown) **population mean** tree diameter.

Suppose that in a random sample of  $n = 100$  trees, the **sample mean** and **standard deviation** of the diameters are

$$\bar{X} = 30.3$$

$$S = 8.16.$$

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Thus the (estimated) **standard error** of  $\bar{X}$  is

$$S_{\bar{X}} = \frac{S}{\sqrt{n}} = \frac{8.16}{\sqrt{100}} = 0.82.$$

Suppose also a histogram indicates the data are from a **normal population**, so the **one-sample  $t$  test** is appropriate.

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(It would be appropriate even if the normality assumption wasn't met because  $n$  is large.)

The **observed value** of the **test statistic** is

$$t = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{S_{\bar{X}}} = \frac{30.3 - 32}{0.82} = -2.07.$$

a) For the **rejection region approach**, using level of significance  $\alpha = 0.05$ , the **decision rule** is

Reject  $H_0$  if  $t < -t_{0.05,99}$

Fail to reject  $H_0$  if  $t \geq -t_{0.05,99}$



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Fail to reject  $H_0$  if  $t \geq -t_{0.05,99}$

Carry out the test using the **rejection region approach**.

b) For the **p-value approach**, using  $\alpha = 0.05$  again, the **decision rule** is

Reject  $H_0$  if p-value  $< 0.05$

Fail to reject  $H_0$  if p-value  $\geq 0.05$

b) For the **p-value approach**, using  $\alpha = 0.05$  again, the **decision rule** is

Reject  $H_0$  if p-value  $< 0.05$

Fail to reject  $H_0$  if p-value  $\geq 0.05$

Carry out the test again using the **p-value approach**.