

# 6: Introduction to Hypothesis

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The general idea of statistical inference is to use sample data to draw conclusions about the entire population.

## Recall: Two Types of Inference

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p. 5.1

### P Estimation (prior chapter)

- Confidence intervals to *estimate* population parameters

### P Hypothesis testing (this chapter)

- Test statistics to *judge* claim about population

# The General Idea

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p. 6.1

**P** Research question → hypothesis (“claim”) → collect data → test claim

**P** Two Philosophies of Statistical Testing

- ▶ Evidence-weighting ("significance testing")
- ▶ Decision-making ("fixed-level testing")

**P** This chapter focuses on decision-making approach

- ▶ Future chapters move toward evidence-weighting

## Procedure Decision-Making

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p. 6.1 - 6.2

(A) Convert research question to statistical hypotheses

Null ( $H_0$ ): no difference in *populations*

Alternative ( $H_1$ ): difference in *populations*

Assume  $H_0$  is true until proved otherwise

(B) Set error threshold

(C) Calculate test statistic

(D)

Convert test statistic to probability

Reject or retain  $H_0$

## Potential Consequences of Decision

p. 6.3

<u>Decision</u>	<u><math>H_0</math> true</u>	<u><math>H_0</math> false</u>
Retain $H_0$	OK retention	Type II error
Reject $H_0$	Type I error	OK rejection

### P Errors

- ▶ Type I error  $\equiv$  false rejection of  $H_0$
- ▶ Type II error  $\equiv$  false retention of  $H_0$

### P Error probabilities

- ▶  $\alpha \equiv$  Probability(Type I error)
- ▶  $\beta \equiv$  Probability(Type II error)

### P Anti-error probabilities

- ▶  $1 - \alpha \equiv$  “confidence”
- ▶  $1 - \beta \equiv$  “power”

## Z test, One-Sided Alternative

p. 6.4

### P $\sigma$ must be known to use $z$ test

- ▶ Otherwise, use  $t$  test

### P Tests can be one-sided or two-sided

- ▶ We start with one-sided tests
- ▶ Which are simpler
- ▶ But . . .
- ▶ are less common in practice

## One-Sample, Z Test

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p. 6.4

(A)

- ▶  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$ , where  $\mu_0$  represents parameter if  $H_0$  true (“null value”)
- ▶ Alternative either
  - $H_1: \mu < \mu_0$  (looking for values to the left of  $\mu_0$ )
  - $H_1: \mu > \mu_0$  (looking for values to the right of  $\mu_0$ )

(B) Set  $\alpha$  (Commonly .10, .05, .01)

- ▶  $\alpha$  set by researcher ( *not* data)

(C) Test statistic

(D) Conclusion:  $p$  value and decision

## Illustrative Example (IQ Scores)

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p. 6.6

P Welscher IQ scores are normally distributed with  $\mu = 100$  and  $\sigma = 15$

P Do children from a particular school (population) have *higher* than average IQ scores?

P Sample:

- ▶  $n = 9$
- ▶ sample mean = 112.8
- ▶  $SEM = 15 / \sqrt{9} = 5$

## Illustrative Example: IFF $H_0$ True

(p. 6.6)

# If  $H_0$  true, then

Q  $\mu = 100$

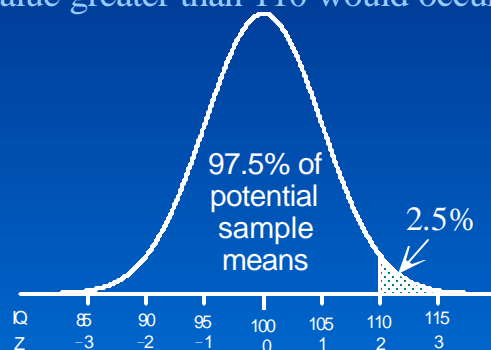
Q Sample means would vary from sample-to-sample

Q SDM would be normal

#  $\therefore$  SDM would be normal, centered on 100 with  
SEM = 5

Q e.g., 97.5% of sample means will be less than 110

Q Seeing a value greater than 110 would occur only 2.5%



## Illustrative Example(cont.)

p. 6.6

(A)  $H_0: \mu = 100$  vs.  $H_1: \mu > 100$

(B) Let  $\alpha = .025$  (or whatever)

(C) Test statistic: Formula 6.1 
$$z_{\text{stat}} = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{SEM}$$

where:

“xbar”  $\equiv$  sample mean

$\mu_0 \equiv$  “null value”

$SEM = \sigma / \sqrt{n}$

$$z_{\text{stat}} = \frac{112.8 - 100}{5} = 2.56$$

## Focus on $z_{stat}$

$$z_{stat} = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{SEM}$$

### P Components of $z_{stat}$

- ▶ Numerator = observed mean - expected mean
- ▶ Denominator = standard error of mean

P  $z_{stat}$  = “standard deviations” above expectation if  $H_0$  were true

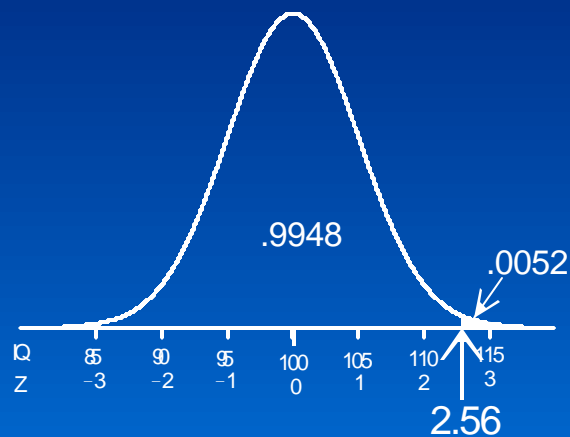
P Convert  $z_{stat}$  to “ $p$  value”

## Converting $z_{stat}$ to Probability

p. 6.6

#  $p$  value = probability test statistic is more extreme than observed *assuming*  $\mu_0$  true = area under curve beyond  $z_{stat}$

# Look-up probability with help of  $z$  table



## Decision

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p. 6.6

**P**If  $p \leq \alpha \rightarrow$  reject  $H_0$

**P**If  $p > \alpha \rightarrow$  retain  $H_0$

**P**Illustrative example (IQ scores)

- ▶  $\alpha = .025$  (set by researcher)
- ▶  $p = .0052$  (calculated from data)
- ▶ Since  $p < \alpha \rightarrow$  reject  $H_0$
- ▶  $\therefore$  difference is “significant”

## One-sample Z test: two-sided $H_1$

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p. 6.4

**P**Similar to one-sided test but without prior specification of direction of difference

**P**More common than one-sided test

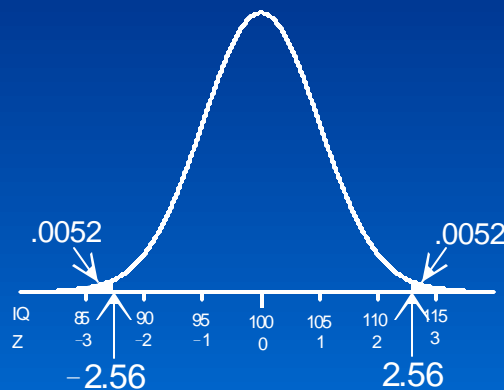
**P**Same four steps

- ▶ A:  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$  vs.  $H_1: \mu \neq \mu_0$
- ▶ B: Let  $\alpha =$  something
- ▶ C: Test stat = Formula 6.1
- ▶ D: Two-sided  $p$  value =  $2 \times$  one-sided  $p$  value

## Illustrative Example (IQ scores)

p. 6.7

- ▶ “Do IQs *differ*” (without specifying direction)
- ▶ Procedure
  - A:  $H_0: \mu = 100$  vs.  $H_1: \mu \neq 100$
  - B: Let  $\alpha = .025$  (or whatever)
  - C:  $z_{\text{stat}} = 2.56$  (same as before)
  - D: Two-sided  $p = 2 \times .0052 = .0104$ ; reject  $H_0$  since  $p < \alpha$



## One sample $t$ test

p. 6.9 - 6.10

▶ Use  $t$  tests when  $\sigma$  is unknown (calculates)

▶ Test can be one-sided or two-sided

▶ Illustrative example ( $\%_{\text{IDEAL}}$ )

- ▶ Variable = % of ideal body weight
  - e.g., value of 100 represents 100% of ideal body weight
- ▶ Sample: 18 diabetics
- ▶ Question: Is  $\mu$  different than 100?



# One-Samplet Test

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p. 6.4

(A)

- ▶  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$
- ▶ Either
  - $H_1: \mu < \mu_0$  (looking for values to the left of  $\mu_0$ )
  - $H_1: \mu > \mu_0$  (looking for values to the right of  $\mu_0$ )
  - $H_1: \mu \neq \mu_0$  (two-sided)

(B) Set  $\alpha$

(C) Test statistic (Formula 6.2)  $t_{\text{stat}} = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{\text{sem}}$

- ▶ with  $\text{df} = n - 1$
- ▶ you lose 1 df b/c you have to estimate  $\mu$  with  $\bar{x}$

(D)

## Illustrative example %IDEAL (cont.)

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$H_0: \mu = 100$  vs.  $H_1: \mu \neq 100$  (two-sided)

Let  $\alpha = .05$  (or whatever)

Test statistic

- ▶  $\bar{x} = 112.778$ ,  $s = 14.242$ ,  $n = 18$
- ▶  $\text{sem} = 14.242 / \sqrt{18} = 3.40$
- ▶  $t_{\text{stat}} = (112.778 - 100) / 3.40 = 3.76$
- ▶  $\text{df} = 18 - 1 = 17$

## Convert $t_{\text{stat}}$ to $p$ value

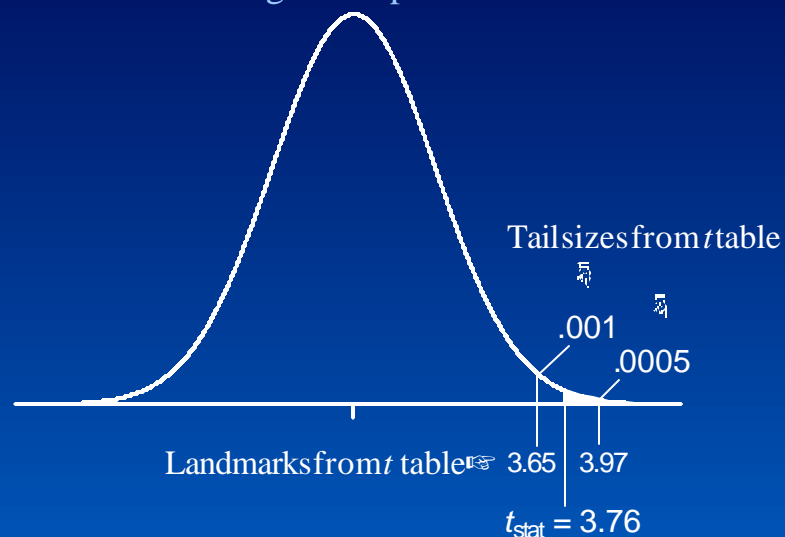
By computer—use SPSS or StaTable

By hand—use  $t$  table “wedgie technique”

- ▶ Put  $t_{\text{stat}}$  between two landmarks from  $t$  table
- ▶ Determine tail areas of landmarks
- ▶  $p$  value less between these probabilities
- ▶ Double probability if test is two-sided

## Illustrative

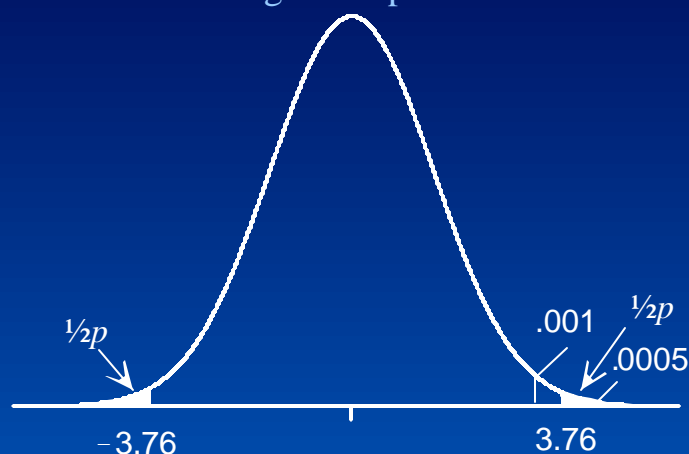
Figure on p. 6.x



∴ One tail less than .001 and more than .0005

## Double tail areas for two-sided tests

Figure on p. 6.x



$\therefore$  Two tails less than .002 and more than .001  
 $.001 < p < .002$

## Fallacies of Statistical Testing

p. 6.2

**P** Failure to reject  $H_0$  = accept  $H_0$

- ▶ WRONG!
- ▶ Failure to reject  $H_0$  = insufficient evidence for rejection

**P**  $p$  value = probability  $H_0$  is incorrect

- ▶ WRONG!
- ▶  $p$  value = probability of data assuming  $H_0$  is correct

# *Fallacies of Statistical Testing* (cont.)

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p. 6.2

**P** Statistical significance implies importance

- ▶ WRONG!
- ▶ WRONG!
- ▶ WRONG!
- ▶ Statistical significance does not address causality or size of effect