

# **STAT 22000 Lecture Slides**

## **Hypothesis Testing About Population Means**

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- Hypothesis Testing About Population Means (Section 4.3)
- Relationships Between Confidence Intervals and Hypothesis Tests (Section 4.3.2)
- Common Misunderstandings About Hypothesis Testing (Not in the textbook)

# Hypothesis Tests about Population Means

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## Example: Number of College Applications

To know how many colleges students applied to, the dean of a certain university took a random sample of size 106 from their newly admitted students. This sample yielded an average of 9.7 college applications with a standard deviation of 7. College Board website states that counselors recommend students apply to roughly 8 colleges. Do these data provide convincing evidence that the average number of colleges all freshmen in this university apply to is higher than recommended?

<http://www.collegeboard.com/student/apply/the-application/151680.html>

## Example: Number of College Applications – Hypotheses

- *Population*: all freshmen in this university
- The *parameter of interest*  $\mu$  is the average number of schools applied to by all freshmen in this university
- There are two explanations why the sample mean is higher than the recommended 8 schools.
  - The true population mean is different.
  - The true population mean is 8, and the difference between the true population mean and the sample mean is simply due to natural sampling variability.
- $H_0 : \mu = 8$  (the average number of colleges freshmen in this university have applied to is 8, as recommended)
- $H_A : \mu > 8$  (the average number of colleges freshmen in this university have applied to is  $> 8$ )

## Wrong Ways to State $H_0$ and $H_A$

$H_0$  and  $H_A$  are **ALWAYS** stated in terms of population parameters, not sample statistics

Neither

$$H_0 : \bar{x} = 8, \quad H_A : \bar{x} > 8$$

or

$H_0$  : average number of colleges applied **in the sample** is 8

$H_A$  : average number of colleges applied **in the sample** is 9.7

is correct. The correct statements should be

$$H_0 : \mu = 8, \quad H_A : \mu > 8$$

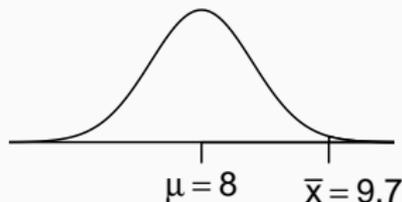
Also please **clearly specify what is  $\mu$** .

e.g.,  $\mu$  is the average number of colleges freshmen in this university have applied to.

## Number of College Applications — Test Statistic

By CLT, under  $H_0: \mu = 8$ , the sampling distribution of the sample mean is

$$\bar{x} \sim N\left(\mu = 8, SE = \frac{7}{\sqrt{106}} = 0.68\right)$$

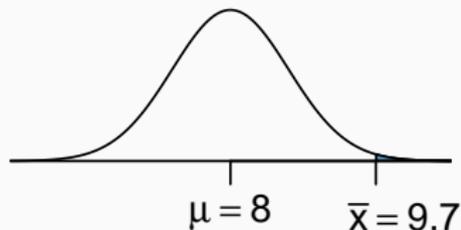


To gauge how unusual the observed sample mean  $\bar{x} = 9.7$  is relative to its the hypothesized sampling distribution above, the *test statistic* we used is the *z-statistic*, which is the z-score of the sample mean relative to the distribution above

$$\text{z-statistic} = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{SE} = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}} = \frac{9.7 - 8}{7 / \sqrt{106}} \approx 2.5$$

## Number of College Applications — $P$ -Value

Recall  $p$ -value is the probability of observing data such that the evidence for the  $H_A$  is at least as strong as our current data set ( $\bar{x} > 9.7$ ), if in fact  $H_0: \mu = 8$  were true.



$$p\text{-value} = P(\bar{x} > 9.7 \mid \mu = 8) = P(Z > 2.50) = 0.0062$$

- Since  $p$ -value is *low* (lower than 5%) we *reject  $H_0$* .
- The data provide convincing evidence that freshmen in this university have applied to more than 8 schools on average.
- The diff. between the null value of 8 schools and observed sample mean of 9.7 schools is *not due to chance* or sampling variability.

## Example: Number of College Applications – Conditions

As CLT is used in the hypothesis test above, we need to check the same conditions as we construct confidence intervals for the population mean.

- Observations must be *independent*
  - Use your knowledge to judge if the data might be dependent
- The population distribution of the number of colleges students apply to should not be extremely skewed.
- In the z-statistic  $= \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$ , if the unknown population SD  $\sigma$  is replaced with the sample SD  $s$ , we need to further check that
  - sample size cannot be too small (at least 30)
  - no outliers & not too skewed  $\Rightarrow$  Check the histogram of data!

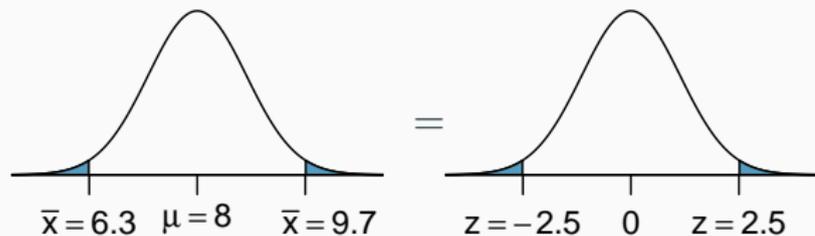
## Two-Sided Hypothesis Test

If the dean wanted to know whether the data provide convincing evidence that the average number of colleges applied is *different* than the recommended 8 schools, the alternative hypothesis would be different.

$$H_0 : \mu = 8$$

$$H_A : \mu \neq 8$$

In this case, a sample mean  $\bar{x}$  far below 8 would also be evidence in favor of  $H_A$ . Hence the  $p$ -value would be the *two-tail* probability



$$\begin{aligned} p\text{-value} &= 0.0062 \times 2 \\ &= 0.0124 \end{aligned}$$

## Recap: Hypothesis Testing for a Population Mean

1. Set the hypotheses
  - $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$
  - $H_A : \mu < \text{or } > \text{ or } \neq \mu_0$
2. Check assumptions and conditions
  - Independence
  - Normality: nearly normal population or  $n \geq 30$ , no extreme skew – or use the  $t$  distribution (Section 5.1)
3. Calculate a *test statistic* and a *p-value* (draw a picture!)

$$Z = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{SE}, \text{ where } SE = \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$$

4. (Optional) Make a decision
  - If  $p\text{-value} < \alpha$ , reject  $H_0$
  - If  $p\text{-value} > \alpha$ , do not reject  $H_0$

# **Relationship Between Confidence Intervals and Two-Sided Hypothesis Tests**

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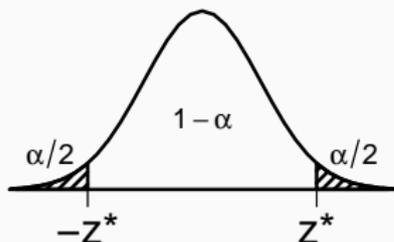
# Confidence Intervals and Two-Sided Hypothesis Tests

For a two-sided test:

$$H_0 : \mu = \mu_0 \quad \text{versus} \quad H_A : \mu \neq \mu_0$$

the following are equivalent:

- $p\text{-value} > \alpha$  (and hence  $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$  is not rejected at level  $\alpha$ )
- $|z\text{-statistic}| = |(\bar{x} - \mu_0)/SE| < z^*$ , where  $z^*$  is a value such that



- $\mu_0$  is in the  $100(1 - \alpha)\%$  confidence interval for  $\mu$

$$\bar{x} - z^* SE < \mu_0 < \bar{x} + z^* SE$$

## Example

Suppose in a study,

- 90% CI for  $\mu$  is (4.81, 11.39);
- 95% CI for  $\mu$ : (4.18, 12.02);
- 99% CI for  $\mu$ : (2.95, 13.25).

Then

- $H_0 : \mu = 4$  is rejected at 5% level but not at 1% level  
(2-sided  $p$ -value is between 1% and 5%)  
because 4 is in the 99% CI but not in the 95% CI
- $H_0 : \mu = 4.5$  is rejected at 10% level but not at 5% level  
because 4.5 is in the 95% CI but not in the 90% CI

# **Common Misunderstandings About Hypothesis Testing**

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In the lecture slide “General Framework of Hypothesis Testing”, we have introduced a number of common misunderstanding about hypothesis testing

- Rejecting  $H_0$  doesn't means we are 100% that  $H_0$  is false. We might make Type 1 errors. Setting a significance level just guarantee we won't make Type 1 error too often
- $P$ -value is not  $P(H_0 \text{ is true} \mid \text{data})$  but it is  $P(\text{data} \mid H_0 \text{ is true})$ .

We are going to talk about more common misunderstanding about hypothesis testing here.

## Failing to Reject $H_0$ Does Not Prove $H_0$ to Be True

Another mistake is to conclude from a high  $p$ -value that the  $H_0$  is probably true

- We have said that if our  $p$ -value is low, then this is evidence that the  $H_0$  is not true
- If our  $p$ -value is high, can we conclude that  $H_0$  is true?
  - No, we could make a type 2 error when failing to reject  $H_0$
  - Moreover, unlike type 1 error rate is controlled at a low level, type 2 error rate is usually quite high. It is quite often that  $H_0$  is not true but the data fail to reject it.
- When we fail to reject  $H_0$ , often it just means the data are not able to distinguish between  $H_0$  and  $H_A$  (because the data are too noisy, etc)

## Real Example

- As an example, the Women's Health Initiative found that low-fat diets reduce the risk of breast cancer with a  $p$ -value of 0.07
- The *New York Times* headline: “*Study finds low-fat diets won't stop cancer*”
- The lead editorial claimed that the trial represented “*strong evidence that the war against fats was mostly in vain*” and sounded “*the death knell for the belief that reducing the percentage of total fat in the diet is important for health*”
- Failing to prove the effect of low-fat diets doesn't prove that low-fat diets have no effect

<http://www.nytimes.com/2006/02/07/health/study-finds-lowfat-diet-wont-stop-cancer-or-heart-disease.html>

## Don't Take the 0.05 Significance Level Too Seriously

- A  $p$ -value of 0.049 and a  $p$ -value of 0.051 give nearly the same strength of evidence against  $H_0$
- For example, in the highly publicized 2009 study involving a vaccine that may protect against HIV infection, the two-sided  $p$ -value is 0.08, and the one-sided  $p$ -value of is 0.04
- Much debate and controversy ensued, partially because the two ways of analyzing the data produce  $p$ -values on either side of 0.05
- Much of this debate and controversy is fairly pointless; both  $p$ -values tell you essentially the same thing — that the vaccine holds promise, but that the results are not yet conclusive

## Hypothesis Testing Cannot Tell Us...

Hypothesis testing cannot tell us

- whether the design of a study is flawed
- whether the data is appropriately collected

So we cannot conclude from a small  $P$ -value about whether one variable has a causal effect on another variable or whether the conclusion can be generalized to a bigger population.

Garbage In → Garbage Out

## Statistical Significance Does Not Mean Practical Importance

Another mistake is reading too much into the term “statistically significant”

- Saying that results are statistically significant informs the reader that the findings are unlikely to be due to chance alone
- However, it says nothing about the practical importance of the finding.
- E.g., rejecting the  $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$  just tells us  $\mu_1 \neq \mu_2$ , but not how big and how important  $\mu_1 - \mu_2$  is. It is possible that the difference is too small to be relevant even if it is significant.
- Remedy: *Attach a confidence interval* for the parameter so that people can decide whether the difference is big enough to be relevant.

## Example

A 95% CI for the average number of colleges freshmen in this university have applied is

$$\bar{x} \pm 1.96 \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} = 9.7 \pm 1.96 \frac{7}{\sqrt{106}} \approx 9.7 \pm 1.3 = (8.4, 11.0).$$

from which one can decide whether the difference from 8 is big enough to be relevant.

## Recap: Common Misunderstandings about Hypothesis Testing

- Rejecting  $H_0$  doesn't mean we are 100% sure that  $H_0$  is false. We might make Type 1 errors
- $P$ -value is not the probability that the  $H_0$  is true
- Failing to reject  $H_0$  does not prove  $H_0$  to be true
- Don't take the 0.05 significance level too seriously
- Hypothesis testing cannot tell us if data were collected properly or if the design of a study was flawed
- Statistical significance does not mean practical importance