

Basic Statistics and Hypothesis Testing

Statistics terminology

Probability density function (*pdf*): A function that plots the probability of observing a particular value. Given a normal distribution, for example, the probability of observing a value close to the mean is much higher than one that is far from the mean.

- Sample: A collection of observations from a population
- Mean: The average value.
- Median: The midpoint of the *pdf*. This is the “midpoint” of the data – half of the values fall on one side of the median, the other half fall on the other side.
- Standard deviation: This measures how widely dispersed the data are – how wide the *pdf* falls around the mean. The variance is the squared-value of the standard deviation.

Hypothesis Testing

The first step in conducting a hypothesis test is to identify the test. This means constructing a null hypothesis (H_0) and an alternative hypothesis (H_a). For example, if you wanted to test whether a sample mean, μ , equals a particular value μ_0 , the test would be written as:

$$H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$$

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

Now, to test your hypothesis, you need to construct a test statistic. This allows you to do the test using a standard distribution (like a normal distribution, or a student’s T distribution). The one you will use most often is the t-statistic:

$$t \text{ stat} = \frac{\mu - \mu_0}{s_\mu}$$

Where s_μ is the standard error. In this case, the standard error would be the estimated standard deviation σ , divided by the square root of the sample size n :

$$s_\mu = \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

Now, you need to identify the critical value of the t-statistic that will allow you to reject your null hypothesis. The critical value you look for depends on how confident you want to be in your test statistic. A critical value is associated with a confidence level - the most commonly used confidence level is 95%, although 90% and 99% are also used. Other factors, like the sample size, determine which critical value you use to conduct your test. The relationship between confidence level, t-statistic, and the probability density function is explained in more detail on the following page.

In the statements below, α below refers to the significance level. Commonly used significance levels are 1%, 5%, and 10% - these are associated with the aforementioned confidence levels.

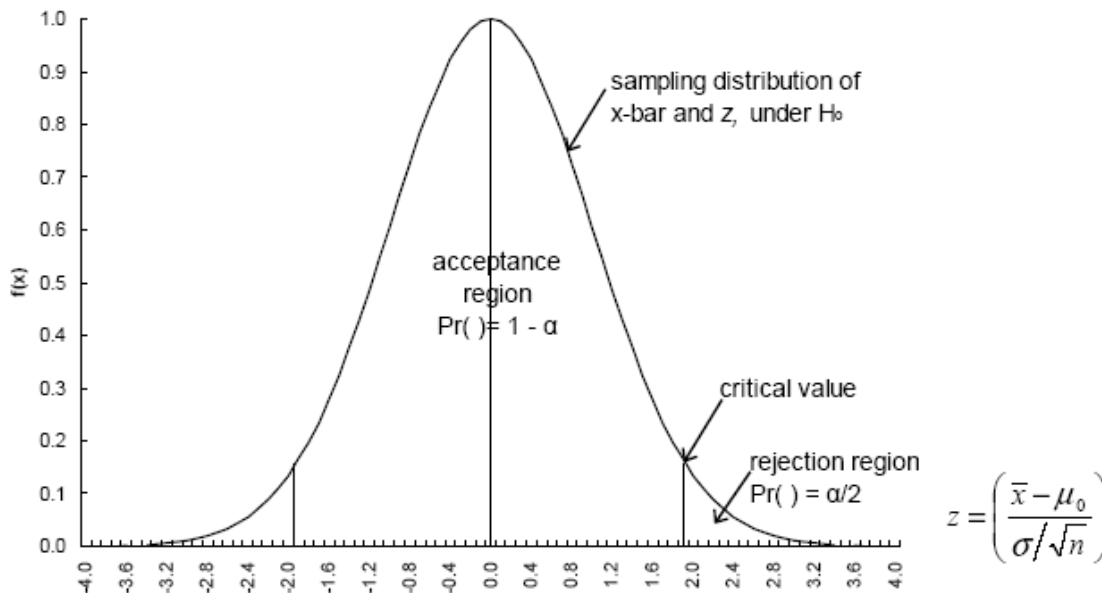
For a two-sided test:

$H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$	If $ t \text{ stat} > t_{\alpha/2, (n-2)} \Rightarrow$ reject H_0	If $ t \text{ stat} \leq t_{\alpha/2, (n-2)} \Rightarrow$ fail to reject H_0
$H_a : \mu \neq \mu_0$	If $p\text{-value} < \alpha \Rightarrow$ reject H_0	If $p\text{-value} \geq \alpha \Rightarrow$ fail to reject H_0

For one-sided tests:

$H_0 : \mu \geq \mu_0$	If $t \text{ stat} < -t_{\alpha, (n-2)} \Rightarrow$ reject H_0	If $t \text{ stat} \geq -t_{\alpha, (n-2)} \Rightarrow$ fail to reject H_0
$H_a : \mu < \mu_0$	If $p\text{-value}/2 < \alpha$ and $t \text{ stat} < 0 \Rightarrow$ reject H_0	If $p\text{-value}/2 \geq \alpha$ or $t \text{ stat} \geq 0 \Rightarrow$ fail to reject H_0
$H_0 : \mu \leq \mu_0$	If $t \text{ stat} > t_{\alpha, (n-2)} \Rightarrow$ reject H_0	If $t \text{ stat} \leq t_{\alpha, (n-2)} \Rightarrow$ fail to reject H_0
$H_a : \mu > \mu_0$	If $p\text{-value}/2 < \alpha$ and $t \text{ stat} > 0 \Rightarrow$ reject H_0	If $p\text{-value}/2 \geq \alpha$ or $t \text{ stat} \leq 0 \Rightarrow$ fail to reject H_0

HYPOTHESIS TEST EXAMPLE: TEST OF $\mu = \mu_0$



Hypothesis:

$$H_0: \mu = \mu_0$$

$$H_1: \mu \neq \mu_0$$

Significance Level (Probability of Type I Error):

$$\alpha = 0.05$$

Under H_0 , the sample mean \bar{x} has a sampling distribution with mean μ_0 and standard deviation σ/\sqrt{n} . If the underlying random variable x is normally distributed, or if our sample size is large, then our test statistic z (the standardized version of \bar{x}) is distributed standard normal.¹

If H_0 is true, then there is a 95 percent $(1 - \alpha)$ probability that our estimate of the test statistic z will fall within the acceptance region shown above $[-1.96, 1.96]$. Thus, we *do not reject* H_0 if z falls within this region (“ z is not statistically different from zero”), or *reject* H_0 if it does not.

Equivalently, if H_0 is true, \bar{x} should fall in the region $[\mu_0 - 1.96 \cdot \sigma/\sqrt{n}, \mu_0 + 1.96 \cdot \sigma/\sqrt{n}]$. If our estimate of \bar{x} does not, we can reject H_0 . Doing a little math,

$$\Pr\left(-1.96 \leq \left(\frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right) \leq 1.96\right) = 0.95 \quad \text{is equivalent to}$$

$$\Pr\left(\mu_0 - \frac{1.96\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \leq \bar{x} \leq \mu_0 + \frac{1.96\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right) = 0.95 \quad \text{and} \quad \Pr\left(\bar{x} - \frac{1.96\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \leq \mu_0 \leq \bar{x} + \frac{1.96\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right) = 0.95$$

The latter says that—if H_0 is true, μ_0 must fall in a 95 percent confidence interval around \bar{x} .

¹ If the variance of \bar{x} (σ^2/n) is *not* known then one estimates the standard deviation with the standard error $se(\bar{x}) = s/\sqrt{n}$, and uses the test statistic $t = ((\bar{x} - \mu_0)/se(\bar{x}))$ which follows a *t-distribution* with $n-1$ degrees of freedom (unless the sample size is large, then it is approximately standard normal).