

# Hypothesis Testing

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- What are the null and alternative hypotheses?
- What are the errors made in hypothesis testing?
- How do we test a hypothesis?
- How do we state conclusions for hypothesis tests?

# What is a Hypothesis?

- A hypothesis is
  - a proposal intended to explain certain facts or observations;
  - an assumption taken to be true for the purpose of argument or investigation;
  - a tentative statement or supposition which may be tested through research.

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- A hypothesis is a statement/claim regarding a *parameter* of one or more populations.
- The parameter could be the population mean or a population proportion, for example.

# Two Hypotheses to Consider ...

- Null Hypothesis
- Alternative Hypothesis or Research Hypothesis

# What is the Null Hypothesis?

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# What is the Null Hypothesis?

- The null hypothesis is
  - the accepted standard;
  - the status quo hypothesis that has been assumed to be true



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- The alternative hypothesis, denoted  $H_1$  and read "H-one", is a statement/claim to be tested for which *we are trying to find evidence.*

# What is the Alternative Hypothesis?

- The alternative hypothesis is a statement that *might* be true instead of the null hypothesis.

# What is the Alternative Hypothesis?

- The alternative hypothesis is an alternative statement/claim that is being tested.

# What is the Alternative Hypothesis?

- The alternative hypothesis is an alternative statement/claim regarding the value of a parameter for a population.



# What is a Hypothesis Test?

- A hypothesis test, also known as a test of significance, is a procedure that compares the results from a sample to some predetermined standard in order to decide whether the standard should/can be rejected.

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- A hypothesis test is a procedure that uses information obtained from a sample to determine if the null hypothesis should/can be *rejected* and the alternative hypothesis *accepted*.

# What is Hypothesis Testing?

- Hypothesis testing the procedure for choosing between the null hypothesis  $H_0$  and the alternative hypothesis  $H_1$ .

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- The null hypothesis  $H_0$  will be rejected and the alternative hypothesis  $H_1$  accepted only if the sample data suggests beyond a reasonable doubt that the null hypothesis is not true.



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- The null hypothesis  $H_0$  will be rejected and the alternative hypothesis  $H_1$  accepted only if the sample data suggests *beyond a reasonable doubt* that the null hypothesis is not true.

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  - $H_0$ : The defendant is innocent.
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# Hypothesis Testing???

- So, consider yourself as a member of a jury: you must **assume** that the defendant is **innocent until proven guilty**.
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# Hypothesis Testing????

- So, consider yourself as a member of a jury: you must **assume** that the defendant is **innocent until proven guilty**.
  - $H_0$ : The defendant is innocent.
  - $H_1$ : The defendant is **guilty**.
- You must have **significant** evidence in order to reject  $H_0$ .

# *Typical Null Hypothesis*

- $H_0$ : parameter = some value

where "parameter" is a parameter for the population.



# Typical Null Hypothesis

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Note: Professional statisticians and professional journals use only the equal symbol for equality; it is rare that  $\leq$  or  $\geq$  are used. Hypothesis tests are conducted by assuming that the parameter is equal to some value.

# Alternative Hypothesis

- Three possibilities
  - $H_1$ : parameter  $<$  some value
  - $H_1$ : parameter  $>$  some value
  - $H_1$ : parameter  $\neq$  some value

where “parameter” is a parameter for the population.

# Pairings of $H_0$ and $H_1$

- Pairing the null hypothesis  $H_0$  with the three possibilities  $H_1$

we obtain three tests ...

# Left-Tailed Test

- $H_0$ : parameter = some value  
 $H_1$ : parameter < some value

where “parameter” is a parameter for the population.

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- $H_0$ : parameter = some value  
 $H_1$ : parameter < some value

where “parameter” is a parameter for the population.

Note: “<” points to the left and, thus, the name left-tailed test.

# Right-Tailed Test

- $H_0$ : parameter = some value  
 $H_1$ : parameter > some value

where “parameter” is a parameter for the population.

# Right-Tailed Test

- $H_0$ : parameter = some value  
 $H_1$ : parameter  $>$  some value

where “parameter” is a parameter for the population.

Note: “ $>$ ” points to the right and, thus, the name right-tailed test.

# One-Tailed Tests

The left-tailed test,

- $H_0$ : parameter = some value  
 $H_1$ : parameter < some value,

and the right-tailed test,

- $H_0$ : parameter = some value  
 $H_1$ : parameter > some value,

are collectively referred to as  
one-tailed tests.



# Two-Tailed Test

- $H_0$ : parameter = some value  
 $H_1$ : parameter  $\neq$  some value

where “parameter” is a parameter for the population.

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- $H_0$ : parameter = some value  
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where “parameter” is a parameter for the population.

Note: If the parameter is not equal to the value then the parameter could be greater than or less than the value - two directions.

# Recall

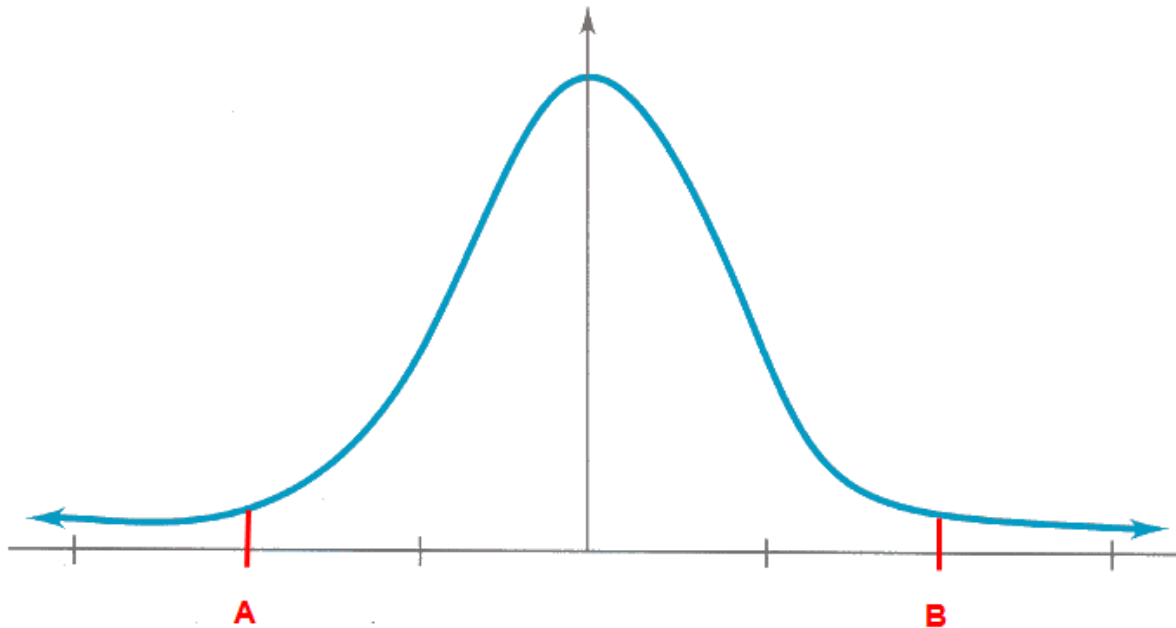
- For confidence intervals, we used information obtained from a sample to infer information about the population.

# Recall

- For confidence intervals, we used information obtained from a sample to infer information about the population.
  - For example, we obtain a sample mean and determine the interval estimates together with the level of confidence for the population mean, that is, the interval that contains the population mean with a certain level of confidence.

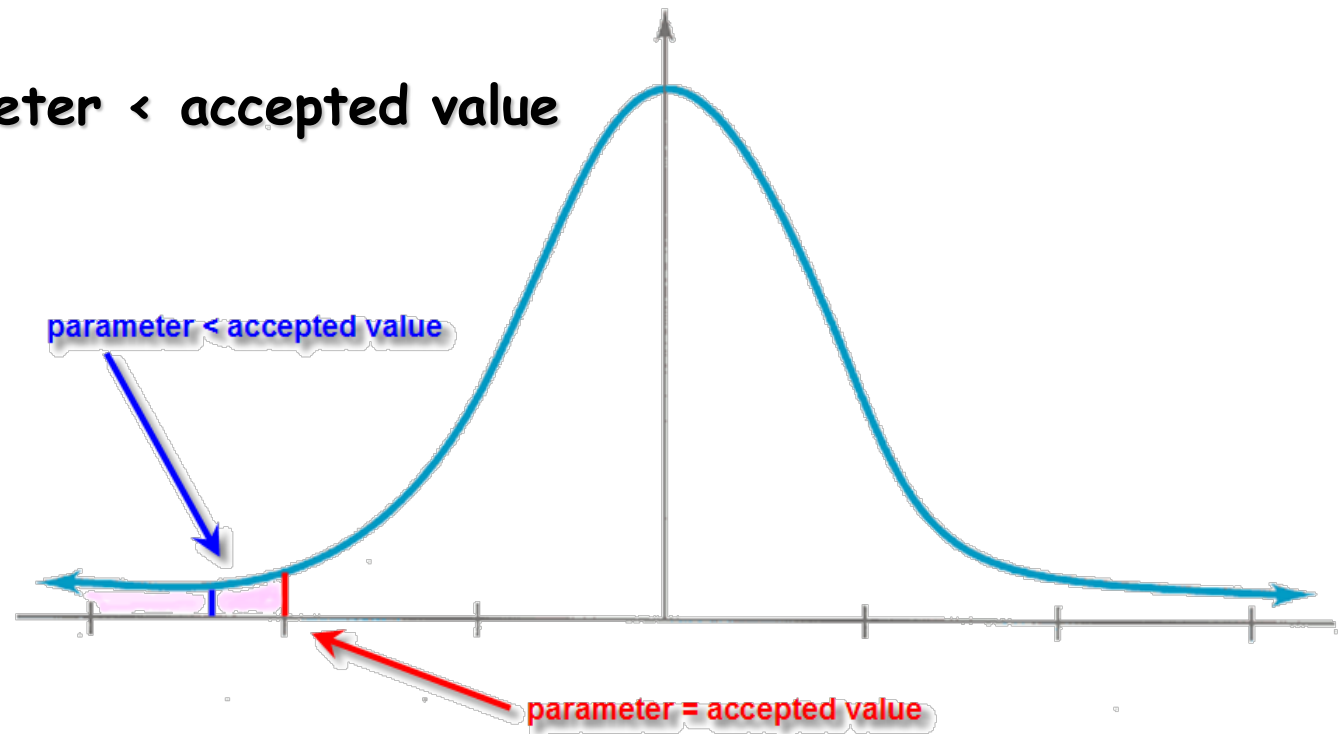
# Why "Tails"?

- Think about the confidence interval - with a certain level of confidence, we know that the parameter is in the interval from A to B.



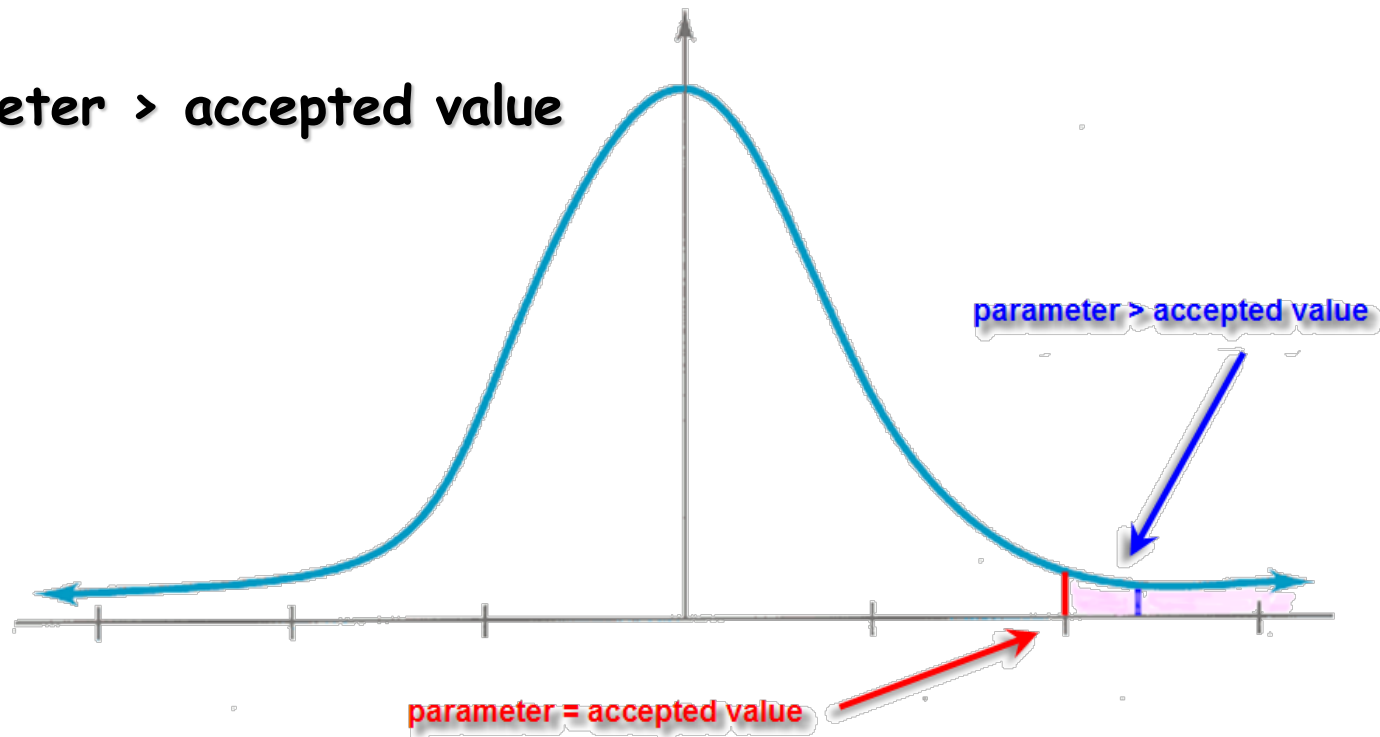
# Why "Tails"?

- We could have  
parameter = accepted value  
or  
parameter < accepted value



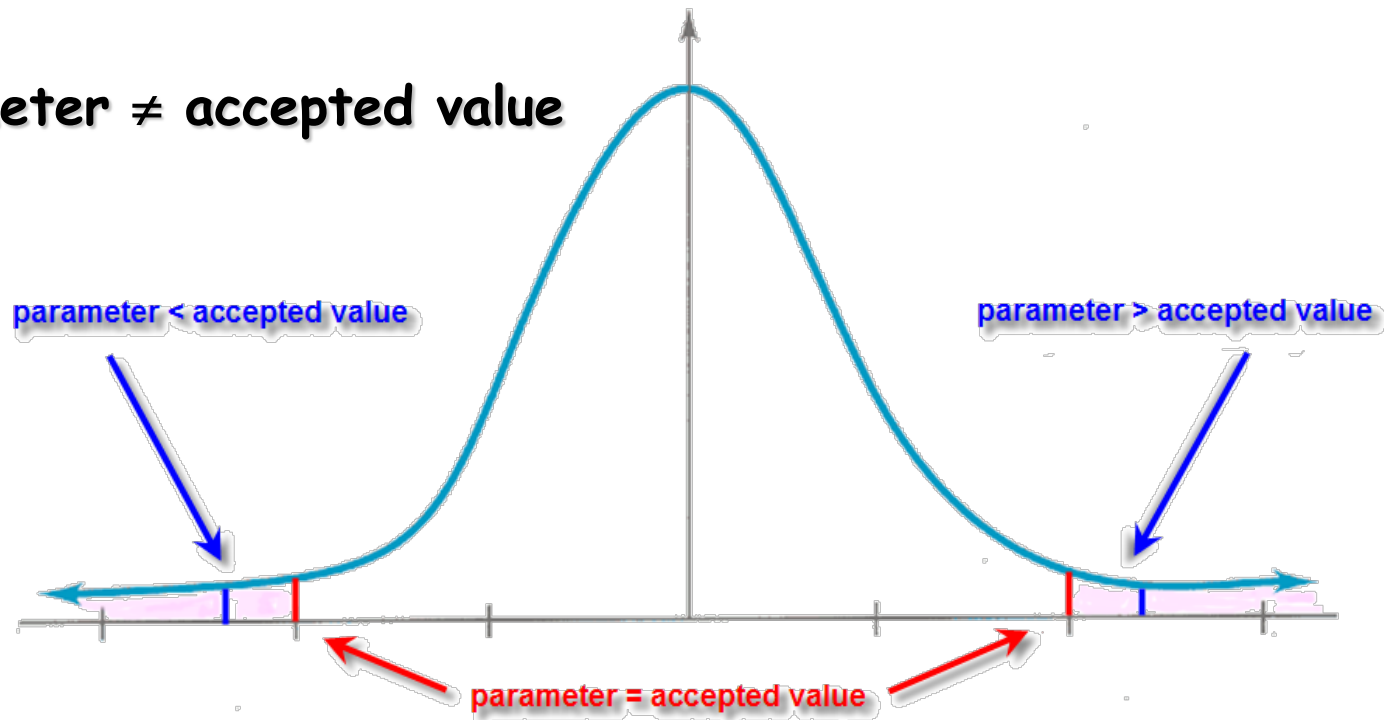
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# Why "Tails"?

- We could have  
parameter = accepted value  
or  
parameter  $\neq$  accepted value





# Tails?

- The “tails” of interest are the regions in the standard normal distribution and t-distribution where the data tails-off.

# Tails?

- Before we can continue to explore the idea of “tails” and how to use them in hypothesis testing, we must understand how to determine  $H_0$  and  $H_1$

# Tails?

- Before we can continue to explore the idea of “tails” and how to use them in hypothesis testing, we must understand how to determine  $H_0$  and  $H_1$  as well as the **errors** that may occur.

# How do we set up $H_0$ and $H_1$ ?

- Consider the following example ...

# How do we set up $H_0$ and $H_1$ ?

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  - Claim:  $\mu > 800$

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  - This claim is the alternative hypothesis  $H_1$ .

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  - Create a statement involving  $\mu$ , an equal sign, and 800.



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- The recommended daily allowance of sodium is 2400 mg. A nutritionist claims that one serving of ready-to-eat or add-water soup contains more than 800 mg of sodium, on average.
  - Statement:  $\mu = 800$

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- The recommended daily allowance of sodium is 2400 mg. A nutritionist claims that one serving of ready-to-eat or add-water soup contains more than 800 mg of sodium, on average.
  - Statement:  $\mu = 800$
  - This is a statement of no difference, no change, no effect.

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- The recommended daily allowance of sodium is 2400 mg. A nutritionist claims that one serving of ready-to-eat r add-watersoup contains more than 800 mg of sodium, on average.
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  - This statement is the null hypothesis  $H_0$

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Note: We do a right-tailed test.

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- According to [fueleconomy.gov](http://fueleconomy.gov), Volkswagen claims that their diesel vehicles have an average gas mileage of 29.5 miles per gallon in city driving.
  - Claim:  $\mu = 29.5$



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- According to [fueleconomy.gov](http://fueleconomy.gov), Volkswagen claims that their diesel vehicles have an average gas mileage of 29.5 miles per gallon in city driving.
  - Claim:  $\mu = 29.5$
  - This is the null hypothesis  $H_0$  since the statement has no change/difference and has an equal sign.

# How do we set up $H_0$ and $H_1$ ?

- According to [fueleconomy.gov](http://fueleconomy.gov), Volkswagen claims that their diesel vehicles have an average gas mileage of 29.5 miles per gallon in city driving.
  - What is  $H_1$ ?

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- According to [fueleconomy.gov](http://fueleconomy.gov), Volkswagen claims that their diesel vehicles have an average gas mileage of 29.5 miles per gallon in city driving.
  - Since the statement provides no information that would lead us to believe that  $\mu < 29.5$  or  $\mu > 29.5$ , we use  $\mu \neq 29.5$  as the alternative hypothesis  $H_1$ .

# How do we set up $H_0$ and $H_1$ ?

- According to [fueleconomy.gov](http://fueleconomy.gov), Volkswagen claims that their diesel vehicles have an average gas mileage of 29.5 miles per gallon in city driving.
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Note: We do a two-tailed test.

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- Consider the following example ...

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- According to the United States Department of Education, of those who graduated from high school from October 2005 to October 2006, 66% were attending college in October 2006. However, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the percentage is lower.

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- According to the United States Department of Education, of those who graduated from high school from October 2005 to October 2006, 66% were attending college in October 2006. However, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the percentage is lower.
  - First statement:  $p = 0.66$



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  - This statement is the null hypothesis  $H_0$ .

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- According to the United States Department of Education, of those who graduated from high school from October 2005 to October 2006, 66% were attending college in October 2006. However, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the percentage is lower.
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  - Second statement:  $p < 0.66$
  - This statement is the alternative hypothesis  $H_1$ .

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- According to the United States Department of Education, of those who graduated from high school from October 2005 to October 2006, 66% were attending college in October 2006. However, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the percentage is lower.
  - $H_0: p = 0.66$
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  - $H_0: p = 0.66$
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Note: We do a left-tailed test.

**Errors???**

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- We use sample data to determine whether to reject or not reject the null hypothesis  $H_0$ .



# Errors???

- We use sample data to determine whether to reject or not reject the null hypothesis  $H_0$ .
- Using sample data,
  - our information is incomplete and
  - the use of incomplete information could lead to our making an incorrect decision.

# Possible Outcomes from Hypothesis Testing

- Reject  $H_0$  when  $H_1$  is true: this decision would be correct.
- Do not reject  $H_0$  when  $H_0$  is true: this decision would be correct.
- Reject  $H_0$  when  $H_0$  is true: this decision would be incorrect. This is called a  
Type I error.
- Do not reject  $H_0$  when  $H_1$  is true: this decision would be incorrect. This is called a  
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# Possible Outcomes from Hypothesis Testing

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# Possible Outcomes from Hypothesis Testing

		<i>Reality</i>	
		$H_0$ is True	$H_1$ is True
<i>Conclusion</i>	Do not Reject $H_0$	Correct Conclusion	Type II Error
	Reject $H_0$	Type I Error	Correct Conclusion

# Possible Outcomes from Hypothesis Testing

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		$H_0$ is True	$H_1$ is True
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	Reject $H_0$	Type I Error	Correct Conclusion

**What would it mean to make  
a Type I Error or a Type II Error?**

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  - Recall -  $H_0: \mu = 800$   
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- We make a Type I error if we reject the null hypothesis when the null hypothesis is actually true.

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  - Recall -  $H_0: \mu = 800$   
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- We make a Type I error if we believe that  $\mu > 800$  (reject the null hypothesis) when the average amount of sodium in one serving of ready-to-eat or add-water soup is 800 mg (null hypothesis is actually true).

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- We make a Type II error if we believe that *the average gas mileage for Volkswagen diesel vehicles is 29.5 miles per gallon* (do not reject the null hypothesis) when the average gas mileage is *not 29.5 miles per gallon* (alternative hypothesis is actually true).

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  - Recall -  $H_0: p = 0.66$   
 $H_1: p < 0.66$

# What would it mean to make a Type I Error or a Type II Error?

- According to the United States Department of Education, of those who graduated from high school from October 2005 to October 2006, 66% were attending college in October 2006. However, according to the Bureau of Labor Statistics, the percentage is lower.
  - Recall -  $H_0: p = 0.66$   
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- We make a Type I error if we reject the null hypothesis when the null hypothesis is actually true.

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# Level of Significance

- The level of significance,  $\alpha$ , is the probability of making a Type I error.
  - $P(\text{Type I error})$ 
    - =  $P(\text{rejecting } H_0 \text{ when } H_0 \text{ is true})$
    - =  $\alpha$



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=  $\alpha$
- Level of significance depends on the consequences of making a Type I error.

# Level of Significance

- The level of significance,  $\alpha$ , is the probability of making a Type I error.
  - $P(\text{Type I error}) = \alpha$
- Level of significance depends on the consequences of making a Type I error.
- If consequences
  - severe then take  $\alpha = 0.01$
  - Not severe then take  $\alpha = 0.05$   
or  $\alpha = 0.10$

# Level of Significance

- The level of significance,  $\alpha$ , is the probability of making a Type I error.
  - P(Type I error)  
= P(rejecting  $H_0$  when  $H_0$  is true)  
=  $\alpha$

Note:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{P(Type II error)} \\ &= \text{P(not rejecting } H_0 \text{ when } H_1 \text{ is true)} \\ &= \beta \end{aligned}$$

# Level of Significance

- **CAUTION:** Reducing the probability of making a Type I error,  $\alpha$ , increases the probability of making a Type II error,  $\beta$

# Testing Hypothesis about $\mu$ with *Unknown* $\sigma$

- We use the t-distribution

# Testing Hypothesis about $\mu$ with *Unknown* $\sigma$

- Requirements:
  - Determine the null ( $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$ ) and alternative hypothesis
    - Determine if left-tailed, right-tailed, or two-tailed

# Testing Hypothesis about $\mu$ with *Unknown* $\sigma$

- Requirements:

- Obtain a simple random sample (with no outliers) from the population
- Population must be normal or the sample size must be large ( $n \geq 30$ )

- Use test statistic 
$$t_0 = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{\left( \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \right)}$$

and Student's t-distribution  
with  $n - 1$  degrees of freedom

## Testing Hypothesis about $\mu$ with *Known* $\sigma$

- We use the standard normal table



# Testing Hypothesis about $\mu$ with Known $\sigma$

- Requirements:
  - Determine the null ( $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$ ) and alternative hypothesis
    - Determine if left-tailed, right-tailed, or two-tailed

# Testing Hypothesis about $\mu$ with Known $\sigma$

- Requirements:
  - Obtain a simple random sample (with no outliers) from the population
  - Population must be normal or the sample size must be large ( $n \geq 30$ )
  - Use test statistic

$$z_0 = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{\left( \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}} \right)}$$

# Testing Hypothesis about a Proportion $p$

- We use the standard normal table

# Testing Hypothesis about a Proportion $p$

- Requirements:
  - Determine the null ( $H_0: p = p_0$ ) and alternative hypothesis
    - Determine if left-tailed, right-tailed, or two-tailed

# Testing Hypothesis about a Proportion $p$

- Requirements:
  - Obtain a simple random sample from the population
  - Meet conditions:  $np_0(1 - p_0) \geq 10$   
with  $n \leq 0.05N$
  - Use test statistic

$$z_0 = \frac{\hat{p} - p_0}{\sqrt{\frac{p_0(1 - p_0)}{n}}}$$

# Two Approaches

- **Classical**
- **p-Value Approach**

# Two Approaches

- Classical
- p-Value Approach

Note: We could use a confidence interval approach as well.

# Two Approaches

- **Classical**
  - Compare the test statistic with the critical value determined by the level of significance
- **p-Value Approach**



# Two Approaches

- **Classical**
  - Compare the test statistic with the critical value determined by the level of significance
- **p-Value Approach**
  - Compare the p-value (probability associated with test statistic) to the level of significance

# Two Approaches

- Classical
- p-Value Approach

We will explore these methods in the context of two examples.

# Two Approaches

- Classical
- p-Value Approach

We will explore these methods in the context of two examples, the first for the population mean,  $\mu$ , and the second for the population proportion,  $p$ .

- The recommended daily allowance of sodium is 2400 mg. A nutritionist claims that one serving of ready-to-eat or add-water soup contains more than 800 mg of sodium, on average. For her sample of 31 ready-to-eat or add-water soups, the average amount of sodium in one serving was 845.7 mg with a standard deviation of 168.3 mg.

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- Null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu = 800$   
Alternative hypothesis  $H_1: \mu > 800$

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- Null hypothesis  $H_0: \mu = 800$   
Alternative hypothesis  $H_1: \mu > 800$
- We will use a right-tailed test

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- We take  $\mu_0 = 800$ ,  $n = 31$ ,  
 $\bar{x} = 845.7$ , and  $s = 168.3$

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- We use these ( $\mu_0 = 800$ ,  $n = 31$ ,  $\bar{x} = 845.7$ , and  $s = 168.3$ ) to determine the value of the test statistic.

$$t_0 = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{\left( \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \right)}$$



- The recommended daily allowance of sodium is 2400 mg. A nutritionist claims that one serving of ready-to-eat or add-water soup contains more than 800 mg of sodium, on average. For her sample of 31 ready-to-eat or add-water soups, the average amount of sodium in one serving was 845.7 mg with a standard deviation of 168.3 mg.

$$t_0 = \frac{845.7 - 800}{\left( \frac{168.3}{\sqrt{31}} \right)}$$
$$= 1.511864714$$

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$$t_0 = \frac{845.7 - 800}{\left( \frac{168.3}{\sqrt{31}} \right)}$$
$$\approx 1.512$$

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$$t_0 = \frac{845.7 - 800}{\left( \frac{168.3}{\sqrt{31}} \right)}$$
$$\approx 1.512$$

We take three decimal places since critical values in the t-distribution table are recorded to three decimal places.

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$$t_0 = \frac{845.7 - 800}{\left( \frac{168.3}{\sqrt{31}} \right)}$$
$$\approx 1.512$$

There are 30 degrees of freedom since

$$n - 1 = 31 - 1$$
$$= 30.$$

- The recommended daily allowance of sodium is 2400 mg. A nutritionist claims that one serving of ready-to-eat or add-water soup contains more than 800 mg of sodium, on average. For her sample of 31 ready-to-eat or add-water soups, the average amount of sodium in one serving was 845.7 mg with a standard deviation of 168.3 mg.
- Level of significance

- The recommended daily allowance of sodium is 2400 mg. A nutritionist claims that one serving of ready-to-eat or add-water soup contains more than 800 mg of sodium, on average. For her sample of 31 ready-to-eat or add-water soups, the average amount of sodium in one serving was 845.7 mg with a standard deviation of 168.3 mg.
- Let us consider a 0.10 level of significance.

- The recommended daily allowance of sodium is 2400 mg. A nutritionist claims that one serving of ready-to-eat or add-water soup contains more than 800 mg of sodium, on average. For her sample of 31 ready-to-eat or add-water soups, the average amount of sodium in one serving was 845.7 mg with a standard deviation of 168.3 mg.
- For a 0.10 level of significance, the probability that a Type I error occurs is 0.1.

- The recommended daily allowance of sodium is 2400 mg. A nutritionist claims that one serving of ready-to-eat or add-water soup contains more than 800 mg of sodium, on average. For her sample of 31 ready-to-eat or add-water soups, the average amount of sodium in one serving was 845.7 mg with a standard deviation of 168.3 mg.
- Using the information we have gathered, we will determine if we can reject the null hypothesis at the 0.10 level of significance.



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- Method I: Classical Approach

# Classical Approach for Hypothesis testing for $\mu$ with $\sigma$ Unknown

- Determine the critical value.

# Classical Approach for Hypothesis testing for $\mu$ with $\sigma$ Unknown

- Determine the critical value in the t-distribution table corresponding to the level of significance  $\alpha$  with  $n - 1$  degrees of freedom.
  - Critical values
    - Left-tailed:  $-t_{\alpha}$
    - Right-tailed:  $t_{\alpha}$
    - Two-tailed:  $-t_{\alpha/2}$  and  $t_{\alpha/2}$

# Classical Approach for Hypothesis testing for $\mu$ with $\sigma$ Unknown

- Determine the critical value in the t-distribution table corresponding to the level of significance  $\alpha$  with  $n - 1$  degrees of freedom.
- Compare the critical value,  $t_{\alpha}$ , to the test statistic,  $t_0$ .

# Classical Approach for Hypothesis testing for $\mu$ with $\sigma$ Unknown

- Compare the critical value to the test statistic,  $t_0$ .
  - Reject null hypothesis  $H_0$ 
    - Left-tailed: if  $t_0 < -t_\alpha$
    - Right-tailed: if  $t_0 > t_\alpha$
    - Two-tailed: if  $t_0 < -t_{\alpha/2}$  or  $t_0 > t_{\alpha/2}$

- The recommended daily allowance of sodium is 2400 mg. A nutritionist claims that one serving of ready-to-eat or add-water soup contains more than 800 mg of sodium, on average. For her sample of 31 ready-to-eat or add-water soups, the average amount of sodium in one serving was 845.7 mg with a standard deviation of 168.3 mg.
- Method I: Classical Approach
  - We determine the critical value,  $t_{\alpha}$ , in the t-distribution table that corresponds to  $\alpha = 0.10$  with 30 degrees of freedom.

- The recommended daily allowance of sodium is 2400 mg. A nutritionist claims that one serving of ready-to-eat or add-water soup contains more than 800 mg of sodium, on average. For her sample of 31 ready-to-eat or add-water soups, the average amount of sodium in one serving was 845.7 mg with a standard deviation of 168.3 mg.
- Method I: Classical Approach
  - Compare  $t_{\alpha} = 1.310$  and  $t_0 = 1.512$

- The recommended daily allowance of sodium is 2400 mg. A nutritionist claims that one serving of ready-to-eat or add-water soup contains more than 800 mg of sodium, on average. For her sample of 31 ready-to-eat or add-water soups, the average amount of sodium in one serving was 845.7 mg with a standard deviation of 168.3 mg.
- Method I: Classical Approach
  - Compare  $t_0 = 1.512$  and  $t_\alpha = 1.310$
  - Since  $t_0 > t_\alpha$ , we can reject the null hypothesis at the 0.10 level of significance.



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- Method II: p-Value Approach

# p-Value Approach for Hypothesis testing for $\mu$ with $\sigma$ Unknown

- Determine the p-value.

# p-Value Approach for Hypothesis testing for $\mu$ with $\sigma$ Unknown

- Determine the p-value.
  - p-Value is the area
    - Left-tailed:  $P(t < t_0)$
    - Right-tailed:  $P(t > t_0)$
    - Two-tailed:  
 $P(t < -|t_0| \text{ or } t > |t_0|)$

# p-Value Approach for Hypothesis testing for $\mu$ with $\sigma$ Unknown

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 $P(t < -|t_0|) + P(t > |t_0|)$

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    - Two-tailed:  
 $P(t < -|t_0|) + P(t > |t_0|)$
- Compare p-value to  $\alpha$

# p-Value Approach for Hypothesis testing for $\mu$ with $\sigma$ Unknown

- Determine the p-value.
  - p-Value is the area
    - Left-tailed:  $P(t < t_0)$
    - Right-tailed:  $P(t > t_0)$
    - Two-tailed:  
$$P(t < -|t_0|) + P(t > |t_0|)$$
- Reject the null hypothesis if p-value  $< \alpha$

- The recommended daily allowance of sodium is 2400 mg. A nutritionist claims that one serving of ready-to-eat or add-water soup contains more than 800 mg of sodium, on average. For her sample of 31 ready-to-eat or add-water soups, the average amount of sodium in one serving was 845.7 mg with a standard deviation of 168.3 mg.
- Method II: p-Value Approach
- Examining the t-distribution table for 30 degrees of freedom, we do not find  $t_0 = 1.512$ .



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- Method II: p-Value Approach
- Since  $1.310 < 1.512 < 1.697$ , we know that the corresponding p-value is such that
$$0.05 < p\text{-value} < 0.10$$

- The recommended daily allowance of sodium is 2400 mg. A nutritionist claims that one serving of ready-to-eat or add-water soup contains more than 800 mg of sodium, on average. For her sample of 31 ready-to-eat or add-water soups, the average amount of sodium in one serving was 845.7 mg with a standard deviation of 168.3 mg.
- Method II: p-Value Approach
- Since  $p\text{-value} < 0.10$ , we can reject the null hypothesis at the 0.10 level of significance.

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- Method I: Classical Approach
  - Since  $t_0 > t_\alpha$ , we can reject the null hypothesis at the 0.10 level of significance.
- Method II: p-Value Approach
  - Since p-value  $< 0.10$ , we can reject the null hypothesis at the 0.10 level of significance.

- The recommended daily allowance of sodium is 2400 mg. A nutritionist claims that one serving of ready-to-eat or add-water soup contains more than 800 mg of sodium, on average. For her sample of 31 ready-to-eat or add-water soups, the average amount of sodium in one serving was 845.7 mg with a standard deviation of 168.3 mg.
- Conclusion:
  - We can reject the null hypothesis at the 0.10 level of significance.

- The recommended daily allowance of sodium is 2400 mg. A nutritionist claims that one serving of ready-to-eat or add-water soup contains more than 800 mg of sodium, on average. For her sample of 31 ready-to-eat or add-water soups, the average amount of sodium in one serving was 845.7 mg with a standard deviation of 168.3 mg.
- Conclusion:
  - At the 0.10 level of significance, there is sufficient evidence to conclude that ready-to-eat or add-water soups have, on average, more than 800 mg of sodium.

- The recommended daily allowance of sodium is 2400 mg. A nutritionist claims that one serving of ready-to-eat or add-water soup contains more than 800 mg of sodium, on average. For her sample of 31 ready-to-eat or add-water soups, the average amount of sodium in one serving was 845.7 mg with a standard deviation of 168.3 mg.
- What if the level of significance is 0.05?

- The recommended daily allowance of sodium is 2400 mg. A nutritionist claims that one serving of ready-to-eat or add-water soup contains more than 800 mg of sodium, on average. For her sample of 31 ready-to-eat or add-water soups, the average amount of sodium in one serving was 845.7 mg with a standard deviation of 168.3 mg.
- Classical Approach with  $\alpha = 0.05$ :
  - Compare  $t_0 = 1.512$  and  $t_\alpha = 1.697$ .



- The recommended daily allowance of sodium is 2400 mg. A nutritionist claims that one serving of ready-to-eat or add-water soup contains more than 800 mg of sodium, on average. For her sample of 31 ready-to-eat or add-water soups, the average amount of sodium in one serving was 845.7 mg with a standard deviation of 168.3 mg.
- Classical Approach with  $\alpha = 0.05$ :
  - Comparing  $t_0 = 1.512$  and  $t_\alpha = 1.697$ , we see that  $t_0 < t_\alpha$ .



- The recommended daily allowance of sodium is 2400 mg. A nutritionist claims that one serving of ready-to-eat or add-water soup contains more than 800 mg of sodium, on average. For her sample of 31 ready-to-eat or add-water soups, the average amount of sodium in one serving was 845.7 mg with a standard deviation of 168.3 mg.
- Classical Approach with  $\alpha = 0.05$ :
  - Since  $t_0$  is not greater than  $t_{\alpha}$ , we cannot reject the null hypothesis at the 0.05 level of significance.

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- p-value Approach with  $\alpha = 0.05$ :
  - Since  $1.310 < 1.512 < 1.697$ , we know that the corresponding p-value is such that  $0.05 < \text{p-value} < 0.10$

- The recommended daily allowance of sodium is 2400 mg. A nutritionist claims that one serving of ready-to-eat or add-water soup contains more than 800 mg of sodium, on average. For her sample of 31 ready-to-eat or add-water soups, the average amount of sodium in one serving was 845.7 mg with a standard deviation of 168.3 mg.
- p-value Approach with  $\alpha = 0.05$ :
  - Since p-value  $> 0.05$ , we cannot reject the null hypothesis at the 0.05 level of significance.

- The recommended daily allowance of sodium is 2400 mg. A nutritionist claims that one serving of ready-to-eat or add-water soup contains more than 800 mg of sodium, on average. For her sample of 31 ready-to-eat or add-water soups, the average amount of sodium in one serving was 845.7 mg with a standard deviation of 168.3 mg.
- Classical Approach with  $\alpha = 0.05$ :
  - Since  $t_0$  is not greater than  $t_\alpha$ , we cannot reject the null hypothesis.
- p-value Approach with  $\alpha = 0.05$ :
  - Since p-value  $> 0.05$ , we cannot reject the null hypothesis.

- The recommended daily allowance of sodium is 2400 mg. A nutritionist claims that one serving of ready-to-eat or add-water soup contains more than 800 mg of sodium, on average. For her sample of 31 ready-to-eat or add-water soups, the average amount of sodium in one serving was 845.7 mg with a standard deviation of 168.3 mg.
- Conclusion:
  - We cannot reject the null hypothesis at the 0.05 level of significance.

- The recommended daily allowance of sodium is 2400 mg. A nutritionist claims that one serving of ready-to-eat or add-water soup contains more than 800 mg of sodium, on average. For her sample of 31 ready-to-eat or add-water soups, the average amount of sodium in one serving was 845.7 mg with a standard deviation of 168.3 mg.
- Conclusion:
  - At the 0.05 level of significance, there is not sufficient evidence to conclude that ready-to-eat or add-water soups have, on average, more than 800 mg of sodium.

- In 2004, 72% of Americans said that sex education should be taught in middle school. In a June 2009 *Fox News* poll of 900 registered voters, 75% responded that sex education should be taught in middle school. Is there sufficient evidence to conclude that the percentage of Americans who say that sex education should be taught in middle school has increased?



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- Null hypothesis  $H_0: p = 0.72$   
Alternative hypothesis  $H_1: p > 0.72$



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- Null hypothesis  $H_0: p = 0.72$   
Alternative hypothesis  $H_1: p > 0.72$
- We use a right-tailed test.

- In 2004, 72% of Americans said that sex education should be taught in middle school. In a June 2009 *Fox News* poll of 900 registered voters, 75% responded that sex education should be taught in middle school. Is there sufficient evidence to conclude that the percentage of Americans who say that sex education should be taught in middle school has increased?
- The *Fox News* poll serves as our sample.

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- We take  $p_0 = 0.72$ ,  $\hat{e} = 0.75$ , and  $n = 900$ .

- In 2004, 72% of Americans said that sex education should be taught in middle school. In a June 2009 *Fox News* poll of 900 registered voters, 75% responded that sex education should be taught in middle school. Is there sufficient evidence to conclude that the percentage of Americans who say that sex education should be taught in middle school has increased?
- Using  $p_0 = 0.72$  and  $n = 900$ , we determine the value of  $np_0(1 - p_0)$ .

- In 2004, 72% of Americans said that sex education should be taught in middle school. In a June 2009 Fox News poll of 900 registered voters, 75% responded that sex education should be taught in middle school. Is there sufficient evidence to conclude that the percentage of Americans who say that sex education should be taught in middle school has increased?

- $$\begin{aligned} np_0(1 - p_0) &= 900(0.72)(1 - 0.72) \\ &= 900(0.72)(0.28) \\ &= 181.44 \\ &\geq 10 \end{aligned}$$

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- Since  $n = 900$  is less than 5% of the population,  $n \leq 0.05N$ .

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- We use these ( $p_0 = 0.72$ ,  $\hat{p} = 0.75$ , and  $n = 900$ ) to determine the value of the test statistic.

$$z_0 = \frac{\hat{p} - p_0}{\sqrt{\frac{p_0(1-p_0)}{n}}}$$



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$$z_0 = \frac{0.75 - 0.72}{\sqrt{\frac{0.72(1 - 0.72)}{900}}}$$



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$$z_0 = \frac{0.75 - 0.72}{\sqrt{\frac{0.72(0.28)}{900}}} \approx 2.004459314$$

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$$z_0 = \frac{0.75 - 0.72}{\sqrt{\frac{0.72(0.28)}{900}}} \\ \approx 2.00$$

We use two decimal places since the z-scores on the standard normal table are recorded to two decimal places.

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- Let us consider the 0.05 level of significance.

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- Let us consider the 0.05 level of significance.
  - $\alpha = 0.05$

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- Method I: Classical Approach

# Classical Approach for Hypothesis Testing for Proportion $p$

- Determine the critical value.



# Classical Approach for Hypothesis Testing for Proportion $p$

- Determine the critical value in the standard normal table corresponding to the level of significance  $\alpha$ .
  - Critical values
    - Left-tailed:  $-z_{\alpha}$
    - Right-tailed:  $z_{\alpha}$
    - Two-tailed:  $-z_{\alpha/2}$  and  $z_{\alpha/2}$

# Classical Approach for Hypothesis Testing for Proportion $p$

- Critical value for level of significance  $\alpha$ .
  - Left-tailed:  
 $-z_\alpha$  is such that  $P(z < -z_\alpha) = \alpha$
  - Right-tailed:  
 $z_\alpha$  is such that  $P(z > z_\alpha) = \alpha$
  - Two-tailed:  $-z_{\alpha/2}$  and  $z_{\alpha/2}$  are such that  $P(z < -z_{\alpha/2}) + P(z > z_{\alpha/2}) = \alpha$

# Classical Approach for Hypothesis Testing for Proportion $p$

- Determine the critical value in the standard normal table corresponding to the level of significance  $\alpha$ .
- Compare the critical value to the test statistic,  $z_0$ .

# Classical Approach for Hypothesis Testing for Proportion $p$

- Compare the critical value to the test statistic,  $z_0$ .
  - Reject null hypothesis  $H_0$ 
    - Left-tailed: if  $z_0 < -z_\alpha$
    - Right-tailed: if  $z_0 > z_\alpha$
    - Two-tailed: if  $z_0 < -z_{\alpha/2}$  or  $z_0 > z_{\alpha/2}$

- In 2004, 72% of Americans said that sex education should be taught in middle school. In a June 2009 *Fox News* poll of 900 registered voters, 75% responded that sex education should be taught in middle school. Is there sufficient evidence to conclude that the percentage of Americans who say that sex education should be taught in middle school has increased?
- Method I: Classical Approach
  - For  $\alpha = 0.05$ ,  $z_{\alpha} = 1.645$ .

- In 2004, 72% of Americans said that sex education should be taught in middle school. In a June 2009 *Fox News* poll of 900 registered voters, 75% responded that sex education should be taught in middle school. Is there sufficient evidence to conclude that the percentage of Americans who say that sex education should be taught in middle school has increased?
- Method I: Classical Approach
  - For  $\alpha = 0.05$ ,  $z_{\alpha} = 1.645$ .
  - We take the average of 1.64 and 1.65 since our value is the average of the corresponding areas.

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- Method I: Classical Approach
  - We compare  $z_0 = 2.00$  and  $z_\alpha = 1.645$ .

- In 2004, 72% of Americans said that sex education should be taught in middle school. In a June 2009 *Fox News* poll of 900 registered voters, 75% responded that sex education should be taught in middle school. Is there sufficient evidence to conclude that the percentage of Americans who say that sex education should be taught in middle school has increased?
- Method I: Classical Approach
  - Since  $z_0 > z_\alpha$ , we can reject the null hypothesis.



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- Method II: p-Value Approach

# p-Value Approach for Hypothesis Testing for Proportion $p$

- Determine the p-value.

# p-Value Approach for Hypothesis Testing for Proportion p

- Determine the p-value.
  - p-Value is the area below the standard normal curve
    - Left-tailed:  $P(z < z_0)$
    - Right-tailed:  $P(z > z_0)$
    - Two-tailed:  
 $P(z < -|z_0| \text{ or } z > |z_0|)$

# p-Value Approach for Hypothesis Testing for Proportion p

- Determine the p-value.
  - p-Value is the area
    - Left-tailed:  $P(z < z_0)$
    - Right-tailed:  $P(z > z_0)$
    - Two-tailed:  
$$P(z < -|z_0|) + P(z > |z_0|)$$

# p-Value Approach for Hypothesis Testing for Proportion p

- Determine the p-value.
  - p-Value is the area
    - Left-tailed:  $P(z < z_0)$
    - Right-tailed:  $P(z > z_0)$
    - Two-tailed:  $2P(z < -|z_0|)$

# p-Value Approach for Hypothesis Testing for Proportion p

- Determine the p-value.
  - p-Value is the area
    - Left-tailed:  $P(z < z_0)$
    - Right-tailed:  $P(z > z_0)$
    - Two-tailed:  $2P(z < -|z_0|)$
- Compare p-value to  $\alpha$

# p-Value Approach for Hypothesis Testing for Proportion p

- Determine the p-value.
  - p-Value is the area
    - Left-tailed:  $P(z < z_0)$
    - Right-tailed:  $P(z > z_0)$
    - Two-tailed:  $2P(z < -|z_0|)$
- Reject the null hypothesis if p-value  $< \alpha$

- In 2004, 72% of Americans said that sex education should be taught in middle school. In a June 2009 *Fox News* poll of 900 registered voters, 75% responded that sex education should be taught in middle school. Is there sufficient evidence to conclude that the percentage of Americans who say that sex education should be taught in middle school has increased?
- Method II: p-Value Approach
  - $P(z > 2.00) = P(z < -2.00)$   
 $= 0.0228$



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- Method II: p-Value Approach

- $$\begin{aligned} P(z > 2.00) &= 1 - P(z < 2.00) \\ &= 1 - 0.9772 \\ &= 0.0228 \end{aligned}$$

- In 2004, 72% of Americans said that sex education should be taught in middle school. In a June 2009 *Fox News* poll of 900 registered voters, 75% responded that sex education should be taught in middle school. Is there sufficient evidence to conclude that the percentage of Americans who say that sex education should be taught in middle school has increased?
- Method II: p-Value Approach
  - p-value = 0.0228

- In 2004, 72% of Americans said that sex education should be taught in middle school. In a June 2009 *Fox News* poll of 900 registered voters, 75% responded that sex education should be taught in middle school. Is there sufficient evidence to conclude that the percentage of Americans who say that sex education should be taught in middle school has increased?
- Method II: p-Value Approach
  - Since the p-value, 0.0228, is less than the level of significance, 0.05, we can reject the null hypothesis.

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- Method I: Classical Approach
  - Since  $z_0 > z_\alpha$ , we can reject the null hypothesis.
- Method II: p-Value Approach
  - Since the p-value, 0.0228, is less than the level of significance, 0.05, we can reject the null hypothesis.

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- Conclusion: At the 0.05 level of significance, we can reject the null hypothesis.

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- Conclusion: At the 0.05 level of significance, there is sufficient evidence to conclude that percentage of Americans who say that sex education should be taught in middle school has increased.

**We may choose to use either**

- **the Classical Approach**

**or**

- **the p-Value Approach.**



**Suggestion: Practice both**

- **the Classical Approach**

**and**

- **the p-Value Approach**

**as you work on the exercises.**

**Since you must *always* obtain the same conclusion using either approach, using both methods as you study will help you to learn/understand each approach as well as confirm your conclusions.**