23. MORE HYPOTHESIS TESTING

The Logic Behind Hypothesis Testing

For simplicity, consider testing $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$ against the two-sided alternative $H_A: \mu \neq \mu_0$.

Even if $H_0$ is true (so that the expectation of $\bar{X}$ is $\mu_0$), $\bar{X}$ will probably not equal $\mu_0$ exactly.

Instead, we need to decide if the observed difference between $\bar{X}$ and $\mu_0$ can plausibly be accounted for by chance (i.e., by the natural variability of $\bar{X}$) or should be attributed to a systematic difference between the true and hypothesized means, $\mu$ and $\mu_0$.

If $H_0$ is true, then $Z$ is approximately standard normal, and will very rarely lie outside the interval $(-z_{\alpha/2}, z_{\alpha/2})$.

But if $\mu \neq \mu_0$ then the distribution of $Z$ will have a nonzero mean, with the same sign as $\mu - \mu_0$, and it would not be so unusual to find $z$ in the rejection region.

So if for our given data we find that $z$ is in the rejection region, there are only two possibilities:

- **EITHER** $H_0$ is true, in which case the observed value of $z$ must be just a “fluke”, or rare event, due simply to the natural variability of $\bar{X}$; (This “false alarm” scenario is not impossible, although it is somewhat implausible, especially if $\alpha$ is small),

- **OR ELSE** $H_0$ must be false.
Here, a reasonable person would conclude that there is sufficient evidence to reject $H_0$.

The situation is analogous to having an alarm which almost never goes off falsely, but which is now ringing.

It is more plausible that the largeness of $|z|$ is caused by some systematic effect (i.e., that $\mu \neq \mu_0$), rather than by the natural variability of a standard normal. Thus, we reject $H_0$.

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**Website on Hypothesis Testing**

To improve your understanding of the discussion above, see the website at

http://www.stat.sc.edu/~ogden/javahtml/power/power.html

This gives a graph illustrating the power of the test. (The power is the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis. It depends on the value of the true mean.)

Try the web demo for the situation in Example 1 of the previous handout (Quarter Pounders), which was a lower-tailed test, with hypothesized mean = 0.25, standard deviation = 0.035, $n=50$. You input the true mean. Try the values 0.25, 0.24, 0.23, 0.22. Then see what happens if you vary the other settings. Be sure to try upper-tailed and two-tailed tests.
Statistical Significance And The Meaning Of $\alpha$

- If $H_0$ is rejected, we say that the results are statistically significant at level $\alpha$.

In this case, we have proven that $H_A$ is true, beyond a reasonable doubt (but not beyond all doubt).

Note that $\alpha$ is not the probability that $H_0$ is true, since there is nothing random about $H_0$.

Instead, $\alpha$ represents the false alarm rate (Type I error rate) of the test, i.e., the proportion of the time that a test of this kind would reject $H_0$ if $H_0$ were in fact true.

A finding of statistical significance does not provide absolute proof that $H_0$ is false.

We may be committing a Type I error (i.e., we may have a false alarm).

To make matters worse, we may never find out whether we made a mistake by rejecting $H_0$.

We do know, however, that if $H_0$ were true, then false alarms would be unlikely to occur: they would have probability $\alpha$.

- If $H_0$ is not rejected, then we say that the results are not statistically significant at level $\alpha$. 
The terminology often used here is that $H_0$ is “accepted”, but this should be avoided, since our inability to find sufficient evidence to reject $H_0$ does not \textit{in any way} demonstrate that $H_0$ is true. (By analogy, the acquittal of a defendant on murder charges obviously \textit{does not} constitute proof of innocence.)

\section*{Tests For $\mu$ When $\sigma$ Is Unknown}

When $\sigma$ is unknown, we estimate it by the sample standard deviation, $s$.

The test statistic to use in this case is

$$t = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{s / \sqrt{n}}.$$

The $t$-statistic measures how far the sample mean is from the hypothesized population mean, in units of estimated standard errors.

If the population is normal and $H_0$ is true, then $t$ has a Student’s $t$ distribution with $n - 1$ degrees of freedom.
The criteria for a level $\alpha$ test are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>$H_A$</th>
<th>Rejection Region</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>$\mu \neq \mu_0$</td>
<td>$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\mu &lt; \mu_0$</td>
<td>$t &lt; -t_\alpha$</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>$\mu &gt; \mu_0$</td>
<td>$t &gt; t_\alpha$</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

This test is commonly referred to as the $t$-test.

Values of $t_\alpha$ can be found in Table 6, using $df = n - 1$.

As $df$ gets larger, $t_\alpha$ becomes smaller.

For $df \geq 29$, $t_\alpha$ and $z_\alpha$ are reasonably close. (We use the same cutoff for “large sample sizes” as we did in constructing confidence intervals. See the discussion given there.)

Before applying the $t$-test, it is wise to check a histogram of the data for approximate normality. Although it is safe to apply the $t$-test even if the data contain outliers, the actual level (false alarm rate) of the test will be somewhat smaller than $\alpha$ in this case.

A more serious problem is that the probability of a Type II error will be larger, so the test has a harder time detecting that $H_A$ is true, than in the normal case.
**Eg 1:** The average nicotine content of a brand of cigarettes must be less than 0.5 mg for it to qualify as a Low Nicotine brand. The manufacturer of Lucky Strikes Cigarettes claims that it is a Low Nicotine brand. To test this claim, the FDA takes a random sample of 20 cigarettes (one pack) of Lucky Strikes. They find an average nicotine content of 0.4 mg, with a sample standard deviation of 0.2 mg. Test the manufacturer’s claim, at the 1% level of significance. Assume that the nicotine measurements are normally distributed.

**Sol:** Let $\mu$ represent the true mean nicotine content for all Lucky Strikes cigarettes. We want to test $H_0: \mu = 0.5$ versus $H_A: \mu < 0.5$. Thus, $H_0$ states that Lucky Strikes are *not* a Low Nicotine brand, while $H_A$ states that they are in fact Low Nicotine.

**Eg 2:** The manager of a credit card company claims that the mean time to settle disputed charges is 30 days. A regulator is worried that the manager’s claim is too optimistic. The regulator examines a random sample of 15 disputed charges, and finds a mean time to settlement of 35.9 days, with a sample standard deviation of 10.2 days. Is there evidence at the 5% level of significance to doubt the manager’s claim, assuming that the time to settle disputes is normally distributed?

**Sol:** Here, we test $H_0: \mu = 30$ versus $H_A: \mu > 30$, where $\mu$ is the population mean (that is, expected) time to settlement for all disputed charges.

**Eg 3:** The Lucky Coin Demo.