

Testing Hypotheses

- Overview
- 5 Steps for testing hypotheses
- Research and null hypotheses
- One and two-tailed tests
- Type 1 and Type 2 Errors
- Z tests and t tests

Chapter 13 - 1

Testing Hypotheses (and Null Hypotheses)

Testing Hypotheses is a procedure that allows us to evaluate hypotheses about population parameters based on sample statistics.

Example of an hypothesis:
Sociology undergraduates at UNT have a higher average GPA score than all other undergraduates at UNT.

Chapter 13 - 2

Research Hypothesis (and Null Hypothesis)

A **research hypothesis (H_1)** is a statement reflecting a substantive hypothesis (i.e., the stated relationship between two population parameters).

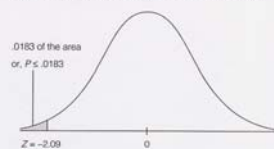
A **null hypothesis (H_0)** is a statement of "no difference" that is in opposition to the research hypothesis (for example: the average GPA score of sociology undergraduates at UNT is no different than that of other students at UNT).

Chapter 13 - 3

One-Tailed Tests

One-tailed hypothesis test - A hypothesis test in which the population parameter is known to fall to the right or the left of center of the normal curve.

Figure 13.2 The Probability (P) Associated with $Z \leq -2.09$



Chapter 13 - 4

One-Tailed Tests

- **Right-tailed test** - A one-tailed test in which the sample statistic is hypothesized to be at the right tail of the sampling distribution.
- **Left-tailed test** - A one-tailed test in which the sample statistic is hypothesized to be at the left tail of the sampling distribution.

Chapter 13 - 5

Two-Tailed Hypothesis Test

A hypothesis test in which a parameter statistic might fall within either the right or left tail of the sampling distribution (we are not sure which tail of the curve the statistic is likely to fall).

Chapter 13 - 6

The Five Steps In Hypothesis Testing

1. **Making assumptions** about the data
 - a **random sample** is being used
 - knowing the **level of measurement** of the data, in the examples that we will be using, we will assume the dependent variable is **interval/ratio**
 - either the variable is **normally distributed** or the sample is over 50 cases, this will allow us to apply the **Central Limit Theorem**

Chapter 13 - 7

The Five Steps In Hypotheses Testing

2. Stating the **research** and **null hypotheses** and selecting **alpha**.
 - Research hypothesis (H_1)** - A statement reflecting the substantive hypothesis. The research hypothesis is always expressed in terms of population parameters.
 - Null hypothesis (H_0)** - A statement of "no difference," which contradicts the research hypothesis and is always expressed in terms of population parameters.

Chapter 13 - 8

The Five Steps In Hypotheses Testing

2. (Continued) Stating the **research** and **null hypotheses** and selecting **alpha**.

Research hypothesis (H_1) - For example, we might state that the average salary of women in the population is less than that of those in the general population (general population = \$28,985).

$$H_1 : \mu_y < \$28,985$$

Chapter 13 - 9

The Five Steps In Hypotheses Testing

2. (Continued) Stating the **research** and **null hypotheses** and selecting **alpha**.

Null hypothesis (H_0) - The null hypothesis would state that there is no difference between the salary of women and the salary of those in the general population.

$$H_0 : \mu_y = \$28,985$$

Chapter 13 - 10

The Five Steps In Hypotheses Testing

2. (Continued) Stating the **research** and **null hypotheses** and selecting **alpha**.

Alpha (α) - Is the level of probability at which the null hypothesis is rejected. We decide where we want to set alpha. It is customary to set alpha at the .05, .01, or .001 level.

Chapter 13 - 11

The Five Steps In Hypotheses Testing

2. (Continued) Stating the **research** and **null hypotheses** and selecting **alpha**.

Type I error: if the null hypothesis is true but we reject it.

Type II error: if the null hypothesis is false but we accept it.

Chapter 13 - 12

Type I and Type II Errors and their relationship to alpha

- During this step we need to be aware that if we set **alpha too large** (e.g. .10) we may create a **Type I** error—that is, we might reject the null hypothesis when it is actually true.
- Or, if we set the **alpha too small** (e.g., .001) we may create a **Type II** error by failing to reject a false null hypothesis.

Chapter 13 – 13

Type I and Type II Errors

Based on sample results, the decision made is to...

		reject H_0	do not reject H_0
In the population H_0 is ...	true	Type I error	correct decision
	false	correct decision	Type II error

Chapter 13 – 14

The Five Steps In Hypotheses Testing

3. Selecting the **sampling** distribution and specifying the test statistic

--to test the null hypothesis we sample at least 50 cases so that our theoretical sampling distribution will be **normally distributed**.

--The test statistic used is either the **Z statistic** or **t statistic**

Chapter 13 – 15

The Five Steps In Hypotheses Testing

4. **Computing the test statistic.** The formula for the Z statistic is:

$$Z = \frac{\bar{Y} - u_y}{\frac{\sigma_y}{\sqrt{N}}} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{\text{Group Mean} - \text{Population Mean}}{\frac{\text{Population SD}}{\sqrt{N}}}$$

Chapter 13 – 16

The Five Steps In Hypotheses Testing

4. **Computing the test statistic.** The formula for the Z statistic is:

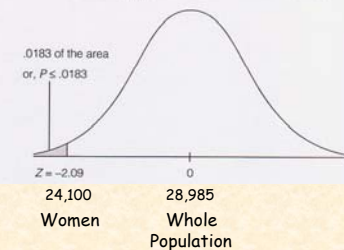
$$Z = \frac{\bar{Y} - u_y}{\frac{\sigma_y}{\sqrt{N}}} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{24,100 - 28,985}{\frac{23,335}{\sqrt{100}}} = -2.09$$

Where the population mean is \$28,985 and the sample mean for women is \$24,100 with a standard deviation of 23,335 and sample size of 100

Chapter 13 – 17

The Five Steps In Hypotheses Testing: Probability Values

Figure 13.2 The Probability (P) Associated with $Z \leq -2.09$



Chapter 13 – 18

When to use the t statistic and when to use the Z statistic

1. The Z statistic can only be used if the **population standard deviation** is known. Typically, this is not the case.
2. When the **sample standard deviation** must be used in lieu of the population SD then the t statistic should be used.
3. The formula for the t statistic is identical to the formula for the Z statistic except that **the sample SD is used in place of the population SD**

Chapter 13 – 19

The Five Steps In Hypotheses Testing

4. **Computing the test statistic.** The formula for the t statistic is:

$$t = \frac{\bar{Y} - \mu_y}{\frac{S_y}{\sqrt{N}}} \quad \text{or} \quad \frac{\text{Group Mean} - \text{Population Mean}}{\frac{\text{Sample SD}}{\sqrt{N}}}$$

Chapter 13 – 20

The Five Steps In Hypotheses Testing

5. **Making a Decision and Interpreting** the results. In our example:

--we confirm that the Z is on the left tail of the distribution (-2.09)

--the **P value** found in the Z table (where Z = 2.09) is .0183, which is less than a .05 **alpha**.

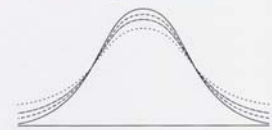
--thus, we can reject the null hypothesis of no difference and can conclude that the average income of the general population is greater than that of women

Chapter 13 – 21

Interpretation of the t statistic and the Degrees of Freedom

1. The t statistic has its own t distribution table that is used rather than the Z distribution table. This is because the Z distribution always assumes a normal curve while the curve of the t distribution varies somewhat depending on the size of the sample.

Figure 13.3 The Normal Distribution and t Distributions for 1, 5, 20, and ∞ Degrees of Freedom

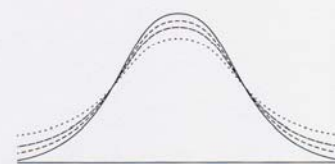


— df = ∞ (the normal curve) --- df = 20 - - - df = 5 ···· df = 1

Chapter 13 – 22

t distribution - a smaller degree of freedom produces a flatter curve

Figure 13.3 The Normal Distribution and t Distributions for 1, 5, 20, and ∞ Degrees of Freedom



— df = ∞ (the normal curve) --- df = 20 - - - df = 5 ···· df = 1

Chapter 13 – 23

Interpretation of the t statistic and the Degrees of Freedom

2. Reading the t distribution table requires knowing the **degrees of freedom** (a concept used in calculating a number of statistics including the t statistic).

--Reading the t distribution table also requires knowing the **alpha** (which you select) and the **number of cases**.

Chapter 13 – 24

Interpretation of the t statistic and the Degrees of Freedom

- The **degrees of freedom** represent the number of scores that are free to vary in calculating each statistic.
- Typically the **degrees of freedom** are $N - 1$ when comparing a group to a whole population.

Chapter 13 – 25

Using the t statistic

- In our previous example we knew that:
The population mean is \$28,985 and the sample mean for women is \$24,100 with a population standard deviation of 23,335 and sample size of 100.
- We subsequently calculated the Z score.
- If we did not know the population SD, we would need to use the sample SD (which is \$24,897) and then calculate the "t" score.

Chapter 13 – 26

For Example:

The population mean is \$28,985 and the sample mean for women is \$24,100 with a **sample standard deviation** of 24,897 and sample size of 100.

$$\frac{24,100 - 28,985}{\frac{24,897}{\sqrt{100}}} = \frac{-4885}{2489.7} = -1.96$$

Chapter 13 – 27

Degrees of Freedom

- Our **degrees of freedom** for this example is $N - 1$ or 99 and our t statistic is -1.96 (the larger the t statistic the more likely it will be significant).
- On page ??? of your book we can find the **t distribution table**. It displays the **degrees of freedom** for 60 and for 120 (or see next slide). Since ours is 99 it falls between these.
- We can assume a **one-tailed test** since existing knowledge indicates that women make less than the population as a whole and certainly not more (the mean will fall on the left side of the curve).

Chapter 13 – 28

t distribution table

Table 13.2 Values of the t Distribution

df	Level of Significance for One-Tailed Test				
	.10	.05	.025	.01	.005
1	3.078	6.314	12.706	31.821	63.657
2	1.886	2.920	4.303	6.965	9.925
3	1.638	2.353	3.182	4.541	5.841
4	1.533	2.132	2.776	3.747	4.604
5	1.476	2.015	2.571	3.365	4.032
10	1.372	1.812	2.228	2.764	3.169
15	1.341	1.753	2.131	2.602	2.947
20	1.325	1.725	2.086	2.528	2.845
25	1.316	1.708	2.060	2.485	2.787
30	1.310	1.697	2.042	2.457	2.750
40	1.303	1.684	2.021	2.423	2.704
50	1.296	1.671	2.000	2.390	2.660
120	1.289	1.658	1.980	2.358	2.617
∞	1.282	1.645	1.960	2.326	2.576

Source: Abridged from E. A. Fisher and F. Yates, *Statistical Tables for Biological, Agricultural and Medical Research*, Table 111. Copyright © E. A. Fisher and F. Yates, 1963. Reprinted by permission of Pearson Education Limited.

Chapter 13 – 29

Degrees of Freedom

- From the **t distribution table** we can conclude that our sample mean is statistically significant from the general population mean because:
 - On page ??? of your book we can see that, for 60 **degrees of freedom**, a t statistic of 1.671 has a **p value** of .05 when using a one-tailed test. This is large enough to be statistically significant at **alpha .05**.
 - the **degrees of freedom** in our analysis is 99, therefore if our t statistic is 1.671 or larger we can conclude that our sample mean is statistically significant with a confidence level of at least 95%.

Chapter 13 – 30

Degrees of Freedom

3. Since our actual t statistic is -1.96 we can conclude statistical significance at the .05 level.
4. We have assumed a **one-tailed test** since existing knowledge indicates that women make less than the population as a whole and certainly not more. **If we did not know whether women make more or less than men we would need to use a two tailed test.**

Chapter 13 - 31

t Test in Sum

- **t statistic** - The test statistic computed to test the null hypothesis about a population mean when the population standard deviation is unknown and is estimated using the sample standard deviation (note: this is not the only situation where the t statistic is used, we will learn others).
- **t distribution** - A family of curves, each determined by its degrees of freedom (df). It is used when the population standard deviation is unknown and the standard error is estimated from the sample standard deviation.
- **Degrees of freedom (df)** - The number of scores that are free to vary in calculating a statistic.

Chapter 13 - 32

Summary: Steps in Testing an Hypothesis

1. Verify assumptions are met
2. State research and null hypotheses
3. Select sampling distribution and test statistic (Z or t statistic)
4. Compute test statistic
5. Make a decision and interpret results

Chapter 13 - 33

Comparing Two Sample Means (Rather than a Sample and a Population as just learned)

Example for comparing two means:

- Comparing the mean salary for women to the mean salary for men (instead of the mean salary of women to the mean salary of the whole population)

Chapter 13 - 34

Comparing Two Sample Means (Rather than a Sample and a Population as just learned)

Steps for comparing two sample statistics are the same as those for comparing a sample statistic to a population parameter except for:

- the formula for calculating
(1) the t statistic and
(2) the degrees of freedom

Chapter 13 - 35

Calculating the t statistic:

$$\frac{\text{Mean of 1st Group} - \text{Mean of 2nd Group}}{\text{Standard Error of the Differences Between the Means}}$$

Chapter 13 - 36

Calculating t Statistic

Mean of 1st Group - Mean of 2nd Group

Standard Error of the Differences Between the Means

$$SE = \frac{\sqrt{(N-1) S1y1 - (N2-1) S2y2}}{(N1 + N2) - 2} \sqrt{\frac{N1+N2}{N1N2}}$$

Where:

N1 = Number of cases for 1st group

N2 = Number of cases for 2nd group

S1y1 = Sample variance for 1st group

S2y2 = Sample variance for 2nd group

Chapter 13 - 37

Calculating Degrees of Freedom

$$df = (N1 + N2) - 2$$

Your text provides an example for calculating the t when comparing two means.

Chapter 13 - 38