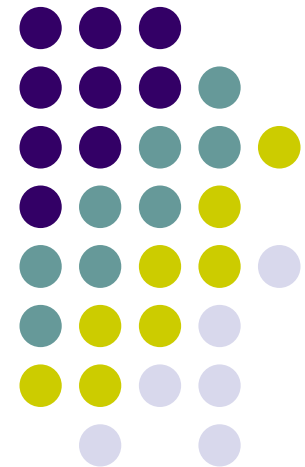


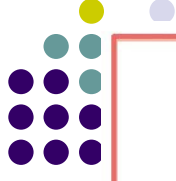
Seminar in Statistics and methodology

Wednesday, 12 March 2008

Summary
Hypothesis testing
T-statistics

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THE STANDARD DEVIATION s

The **variance** s^2 of a set of observations is the average of the squares of the deviations of the observations from their mean. In symbols, the variance of n observations x_1, x_2, \dots, x_n is

$$s^2 = \frac{(x_1 - \bar{x})^2 + (x_2 - \bar{x})^2 + \cdots + (x_n - \bar{x})^2}{n - 1}$$

or, in more compact notation,

$$s^2 = \frac{1}{n - 1} \sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2$$

The **standard deviation** s is the square root of the variance s^2 :

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{1}{n - 1} \sum (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$



The normal distribution

- The density curve of a normal distribution is
 - Symmetric
 - Unimodal
 - Bell-shaped

The flatness of the curve will depend on the SD

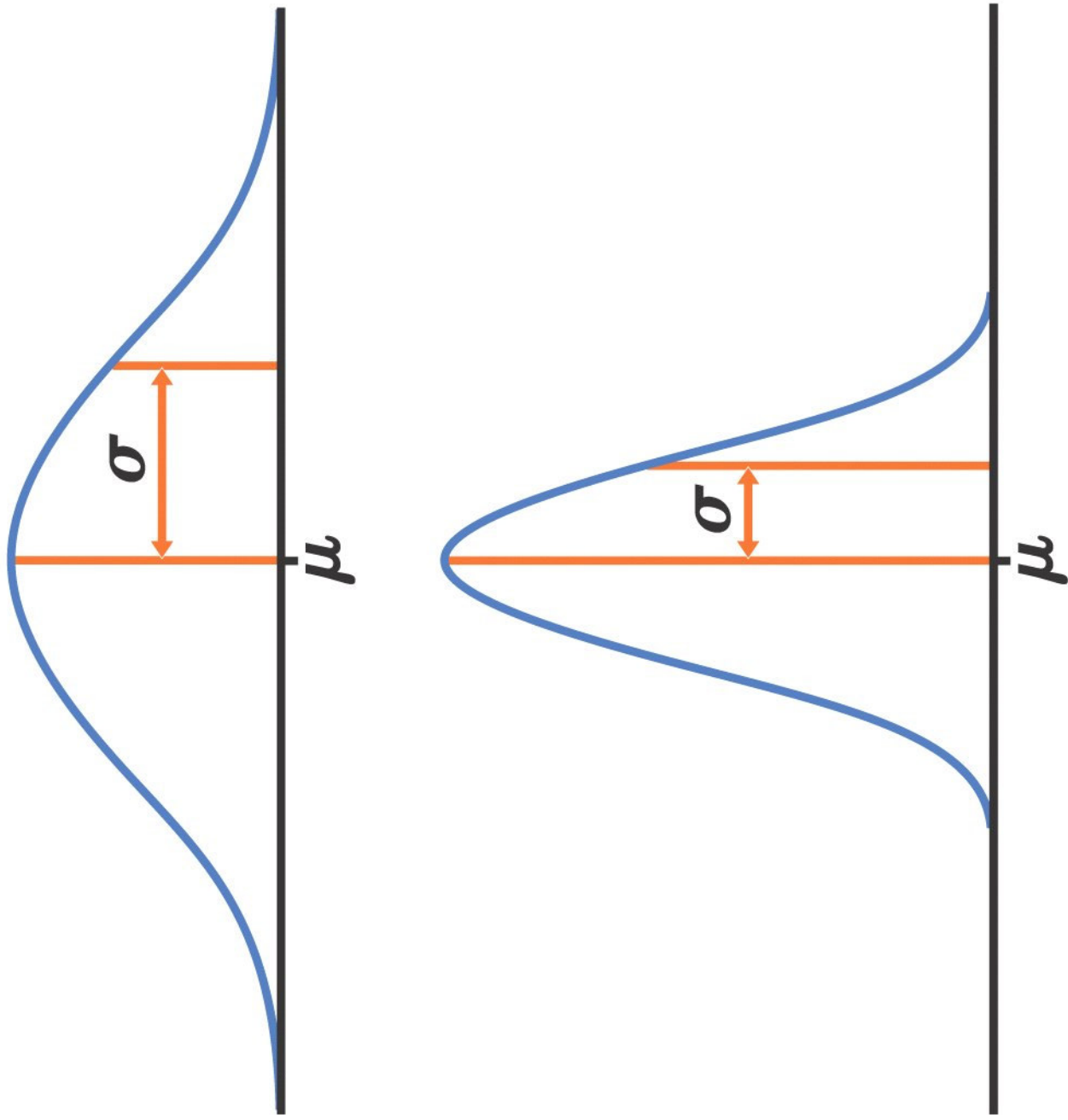
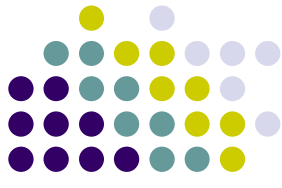


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THE 68–95–99.7 RULE

In the normal distribution with mean μ and standard deviation σ :

- Approximately **68%** of the observations fall within σ of the mean μ .
- Approximately **95%** of the observations fall within 2σ of μ .
- Approximately **99.7%** of the observations fall within 3σ of μ .

Definition, pg 71
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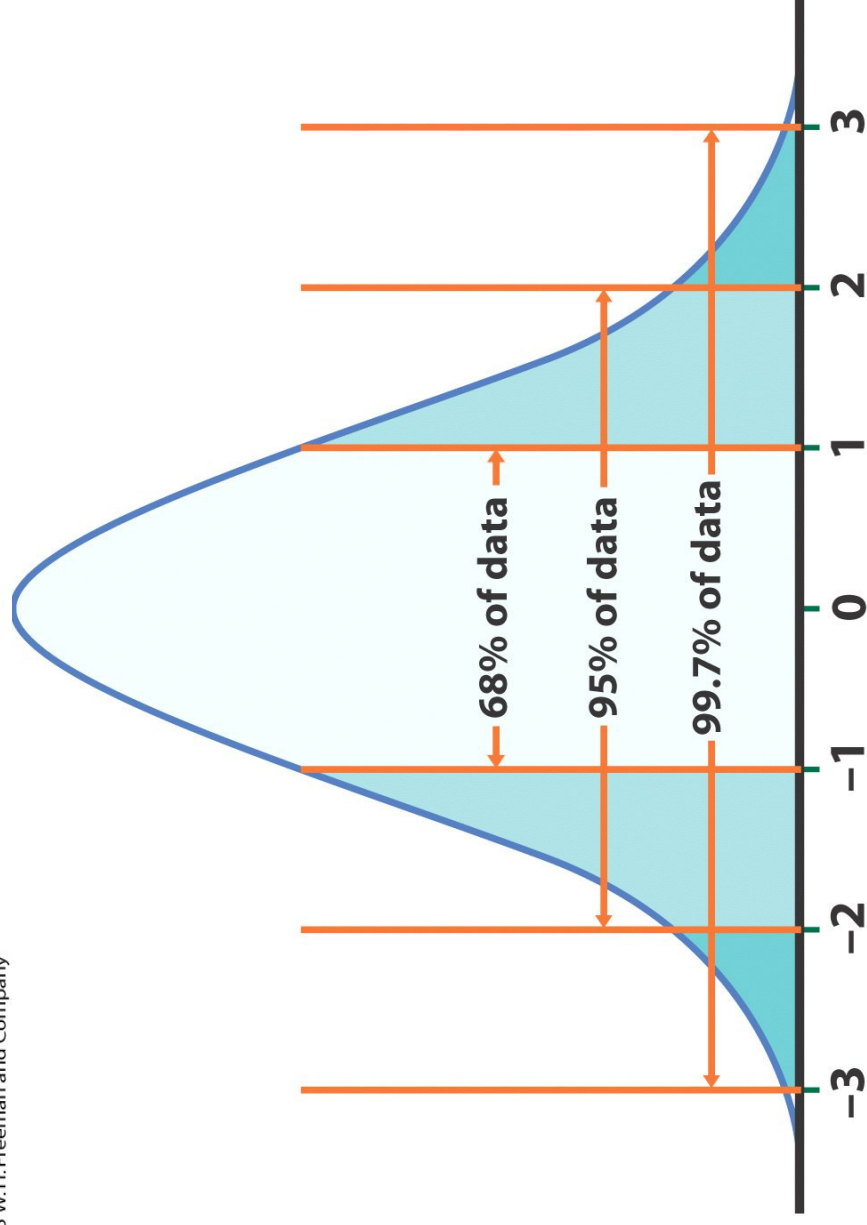


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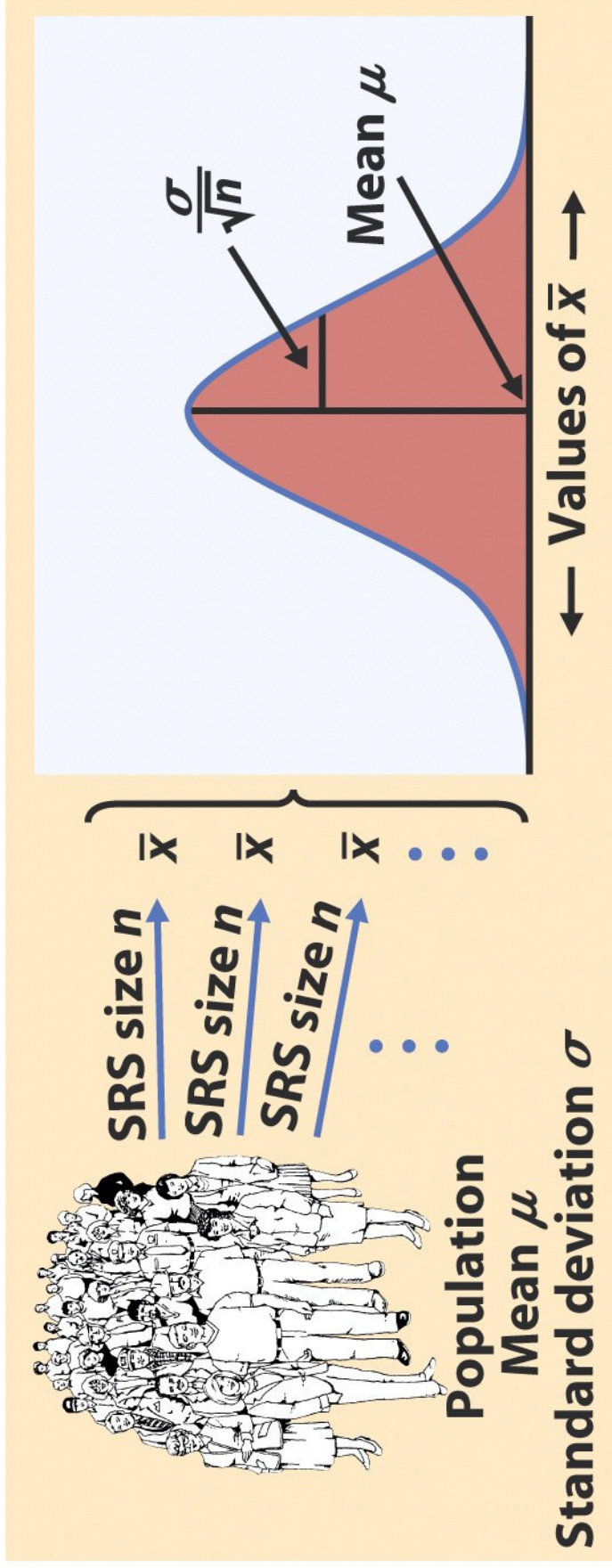
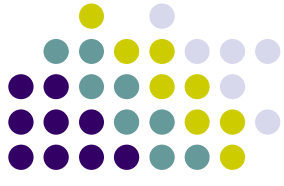


Figure 5-12

CENTRAL LIMIT THEOREM

Draw an SRS of size n from any population with mean μ and finite standard deviation σ . When n is large, the sampling distribution of the sample mean \bar{x} is approximately normal:

$$\bar{x} \text{ is approximately } N\left(\mu, \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right)$$



CONFIDENCE INTERVAL

A level C **confidence interval** for a parameter is an interval computed from sample data by a method that has probability C of producing an interval containing the true value of the parameter.

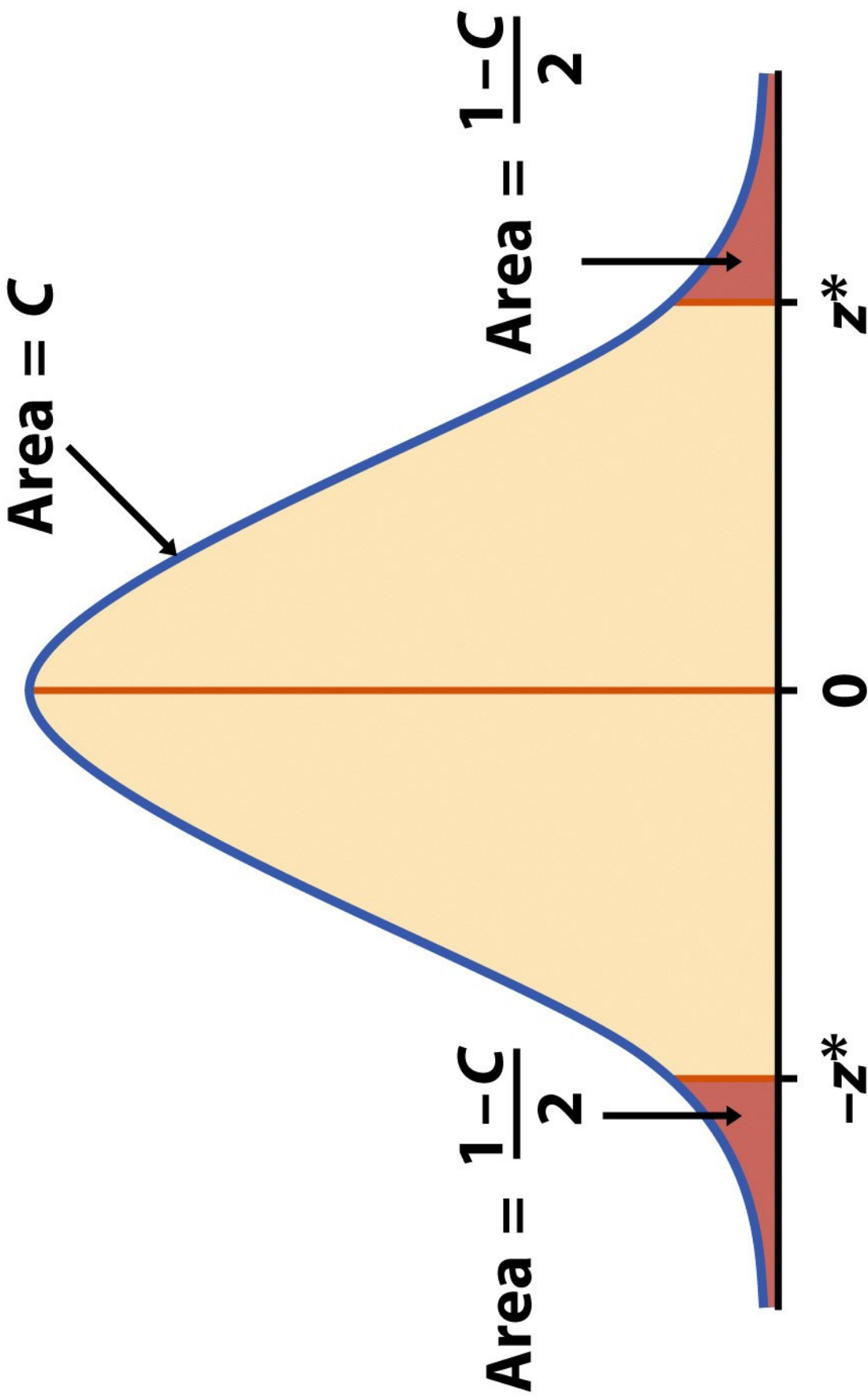
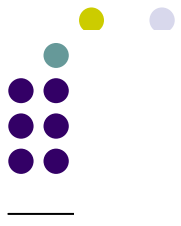


Figure 6-4
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CONFIDENCE INTERVAL FOR A POPULATION MEAN

Choose an SRS of size n from a population having unknown mean μ and known standard deviation σ . The **margin of error** for a level C confidence interval for μ is

$$m = z^* \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$$

Here z^* is the value on the standard normal curve with area C between the critical points $-z^*$ and z^* . The level C **confidence interval** for μ is

$$\bar{x} \pm m$$

This interval is exact when the population distribution is normal and is approximately correct for large n in other cases.

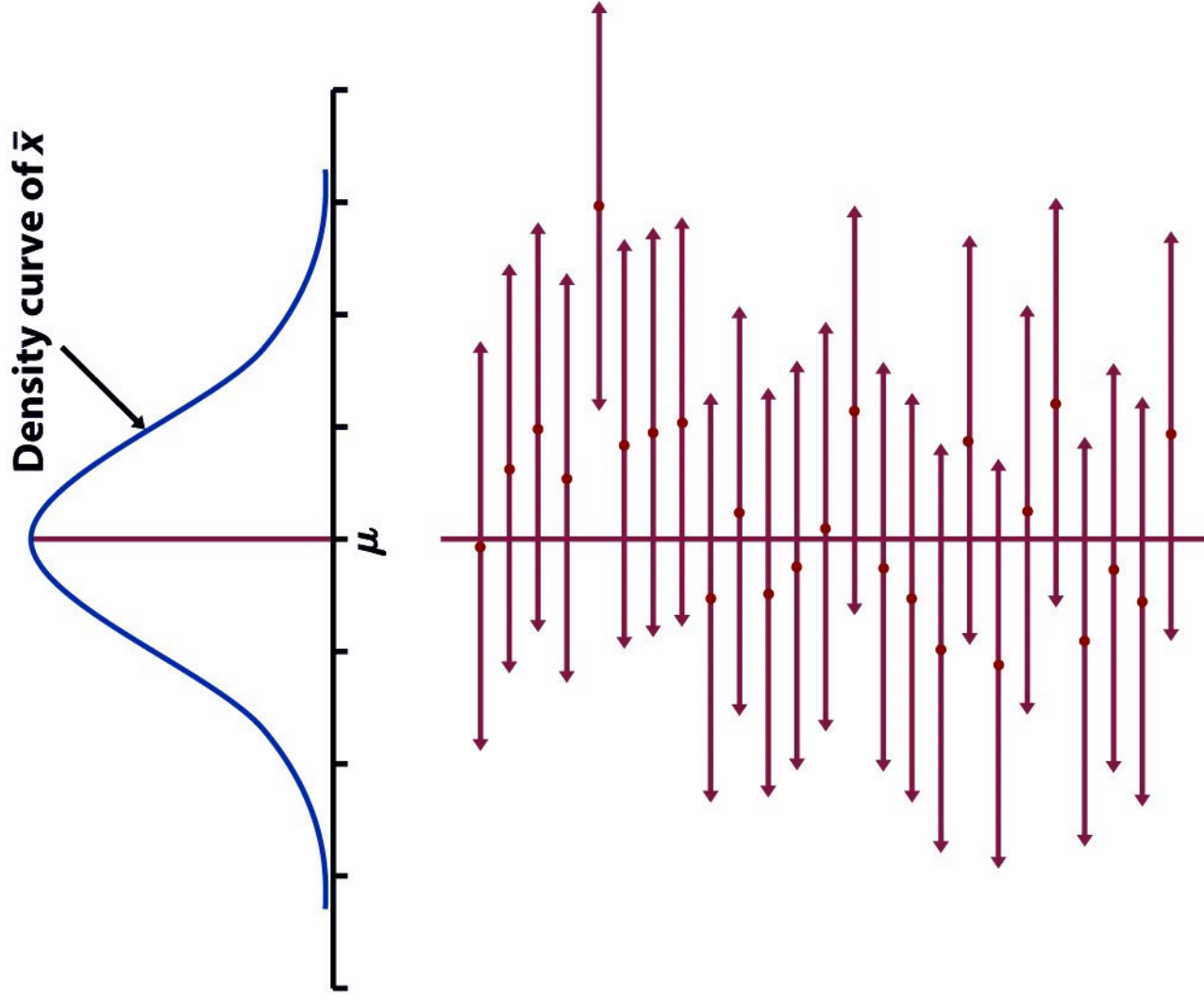
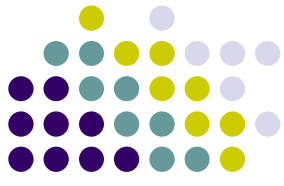


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Hypothesis Testing



- **Very similar to reasoning with confidence intervals, but slightly different perspective:**
 - Confidence interval are used when you want to estimate a population parameter (e.g., μ)
 - Hypothesis testing applies when you want to know the probability of finding some test result (e.g., mean from your sample)

Hypothesis Testing and Significance tests



- CI: good to estimate a population parameter
- Hp testing: is an *inferential* reasoning.
 - It assesses evidences provided by the data in favor of some claim about the population
- SIGNIFICANCE TEST
 - It compares data with *hypotheses* whose truth we want to assess
 - The hp is a claim about a model or a population parameter
 - The results of a significance test are expressed in terms of *probability* (how much are data and Hp similar to each other?)

H_0 and H_a



- H_0
 - It is the hypothesis of “no difference” or “no effect”. It is the hypothesis we want to test with a significance test.
 - The significance test gives the strength of the evidence against H_0 . It assesses the evidence against H_0 in terms of probability.
- H_a
 - Is the case we suspect to be true. It is in any case the hypothesis we would like to prove to be true



Significance test at work

- The significance test is based on a statistic that estimates the parameter that appears in the H_0 s
- If H_0 is true
 - We expect the estimate to take a value near the parameter value specified by H_0
- If H_0 is false
 - The values of the estimate are far from the parameter values specified by H_0



Another formulation

- A test of significance finds the probability (p-value) of getting an outcome *as extreme or more than the observed outcome*
 - Extreme means far away from what we expect assuming H_0 as true
- P-value:
 - The smaller the p-value, the stronger the evidences against H_0 .



Alfa -level

- α -level
- It is a level that we consider critical to compare our significance with
 - Typically
 - $\alpha=0.05$
 - There will be only 5% of chances that the H0 will be rejected, in case it were true
 - $\alpha=0.01$
 - There will be only 1% of chances that the H0 will be rejected, in case it were true



TYPE I AND TYPE II ERRORS

If we reject H_0 (accept H_a) when in fact H_0 is true, this is a **Type I error**. If we accept H_0 (reject H_a) when in fact H_a is true, this is a **Type II error**.



Truth about the population

H_0 true H_a true

Type I
error

Correct
decision

Correct
decision

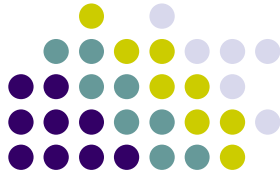
Type II
error

Reject H_0

Accept H_0

Decision
based on
sample

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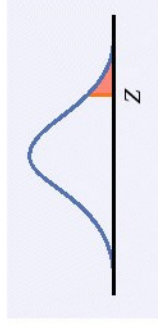
Z TEST FOR A POPULATION MEAN

To test the hypothesis $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$ based on an SRS of size n from a population with unknown mean μ and known standard deviation σ , compute the test statistic

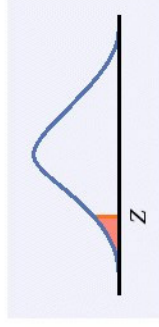
$$Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$$

In terms of a standard normal random variable Z , the P -value for a test of H_0 against

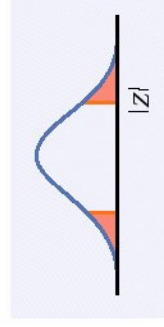
$$H_a: \mu > \mu_0 \text{ is } P(Z \geq z)$$



$$H_a: \mu < \mu_0 \text{ is } P(Z \leq z)$$



$$H_a: \mu \neq \mu_0 \text{ is } 2P(Z \geq |z|)$$



These P -values are exact if the population distribution is normal and are approximately correct for large n in other cases.



Hypothesis Testing

- Example book (pp. 409-411):
 - Mean blood pressure in population is 128, $\sigma = 15$
 - Sample of 72 executives with lot of stress
 - Sample average is 126.07, is this 'normal'?

$$H_0: \mu_{\text{executives}} = \mu_{\text{population}} = 128$$

$$H_a: \mu_{\text{executives}} \neq \mu_{\text{population}}$$

- $z = (126.07 - 128) / (15 / \sqrt{72}) = -1.09$
- For $z = -1.09$ we find in the tables that the probability is 0.1379. Multiplied per 2 = 0.2758

$P = 0.2758$

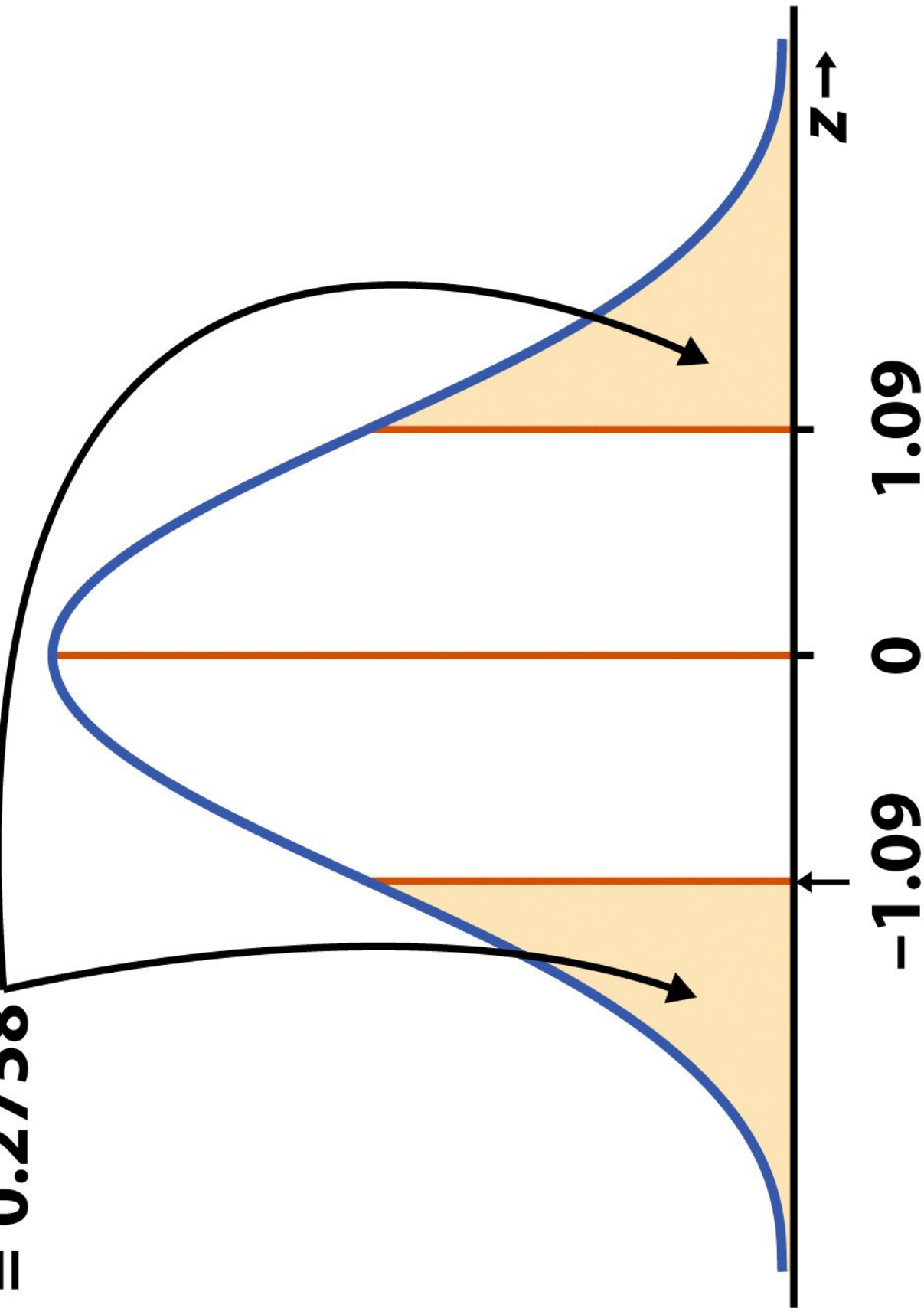
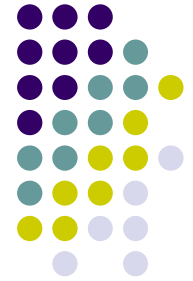


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T-distribution and t-test





T-tests

- Assumption: σ population is UNKNOWN
- This happens most of the time.
 - Usually σ is known when we have standardized tests)
- This hypothesis testing (and associated calculation of confidence intervals) is done with *t-tests*



T-test

- Standardized sample mean, or one-sample z statistic is basis of z-procedures for inference about μ when σ is known:

$$z = \frac{\text{mean} - \mu}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$$

- Most of the time, we only know S , not σ
- Therefore we use S to estimate σ .
- However, when we use S/\sqrt{n} instead of σ/\sqrt{n} , z does NOT have a **standardnormal** distribution!
- It has a **t distribution**

The z-statistics

$$z = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$$





THE t DISTRIBUTIONS

Suppose that an SRS of size n is drawn from an $N(\mu, \sigma)$ population.
Then the **one-sample t statistic**

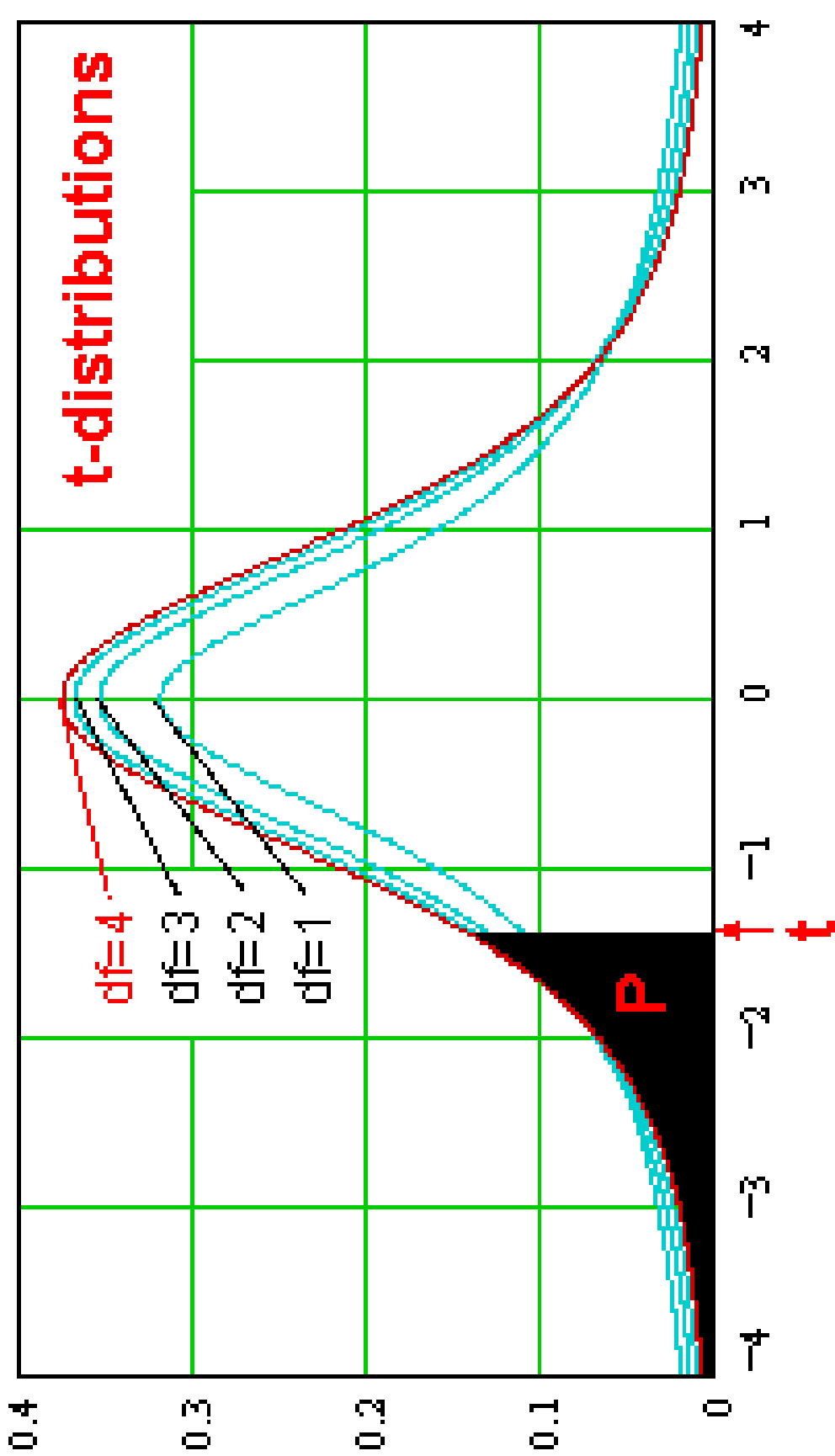
$$t = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{s/\sqrt{n}}$$

has the **t distribution** with $n - 1$ **degrees of freedom.**



Degrees of Freedom

- “In general, the degrees of freedom of an estimate is equal to the *number of independent scores* that go into the estimate *minus the number of parameters estimated as intermediate steps* in the estimation of the parameter itself.” (Lane)
- “the number of values in the final calculation of a statistic that are free to vary.” (Hoffman)
- Difficult concept, but important in *determining the shape of the distribution* you are dealing with. Varies ***roughly*** with number of observations.



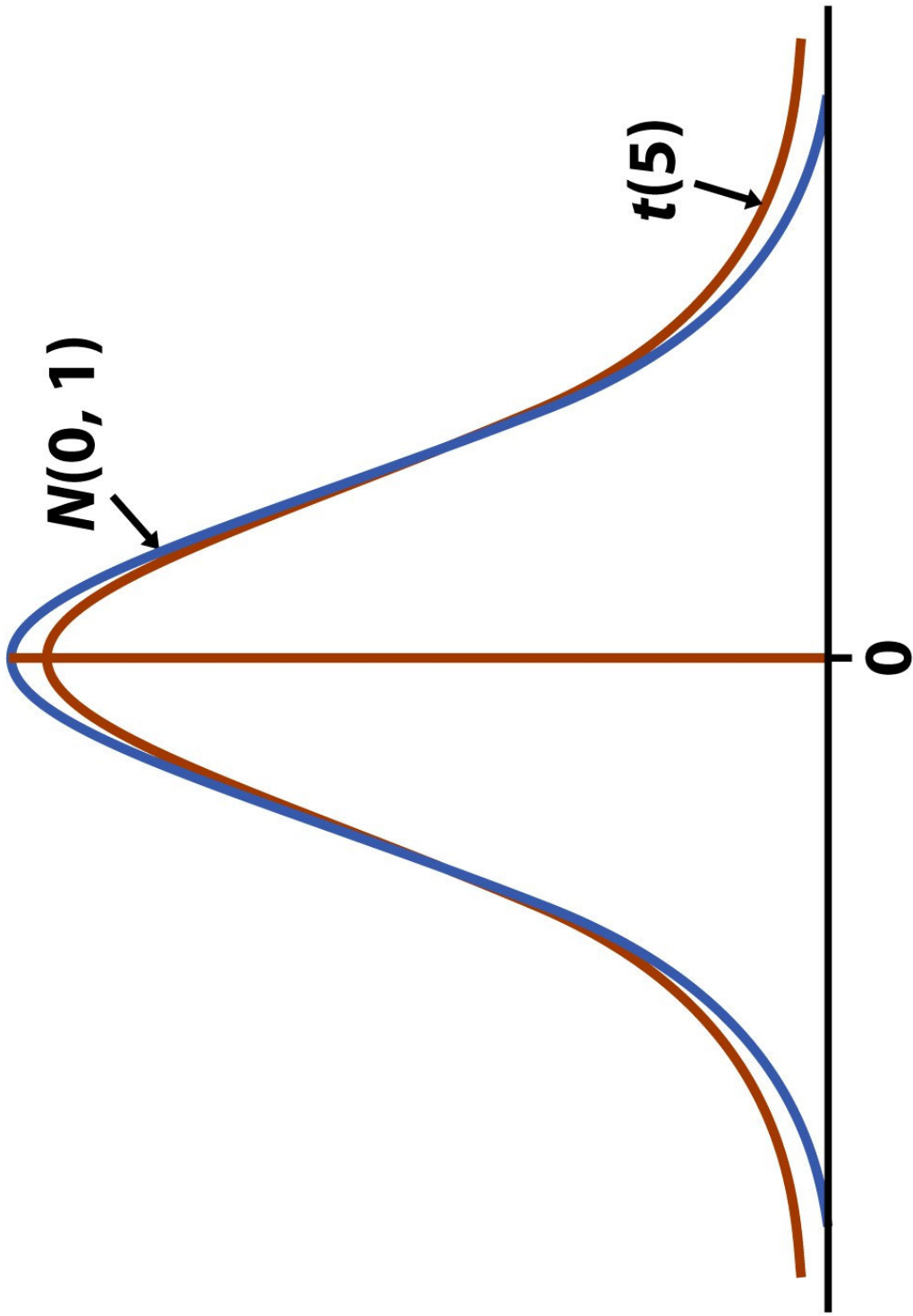


Figure 7-1
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The t-distribution

- The density curve of $t(k)$ has a similar shape than a normal curve:
 - Symmetric
 - Bell-shaped
- As $k \gg$; $t(k) \rightarrow N(0;1)$
- Table D shows the critical values for $t(k)$ distributions.



STANDARD ERROR

When the standard deviation of a statistic is estimated from the data, the result is called the **standard error** of the statistic. The standard error of the sample mean is

$$SE_{\bar{x}} = \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$$



THE ONE-SAMPLE t CONFIDENCE INTERVAL

Suppose that an SRS of size n is drawn from a population having unknown mean μ . A level C **confidence interval** for μ is

Found in
table D

$$\bar{x} \pm t^* \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$$

where t^* is the value for the $t(n - 1)$ density curve with area C between $-t^*$ and t^* . The quantity

$$t^* \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}}$$

is the **margin of error**. This interval is exact when the population distribution is normal and is approximately correct for large n in other cases.

Definition, pg 452

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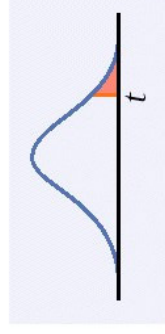
THE ONE-SAMPLE t TEST

Suppose that an SRS of size n is drawn from a population having unknown mean μ . To test the hypothesis $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$ based on an SRS of size n , compute the one-sample t statistic

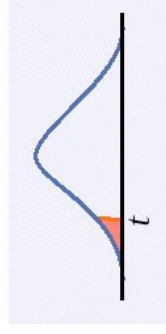
$$t = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{s/\sqrt{n}}$$

In terms of a random variable T having the $t(n - 1)$ distribution, the P -value for a test of H_0 against

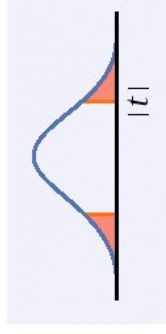
$$H_a: \mu > \mu_0 \text{ is } P(T \geq t)$$



$$H_a: \mu < \mu_0 \text{ is } P(T \leq t)$$



$$H_a: \mu \neq \mu_0 \text{ is } 2P(T \geq |t|)$$



These P -values are exact if the population distribution is normal and are approximately correct for large n in other cases.



Example

- Vitamin C in a food product: should be 40 mg per 100 grams.
- $H_0: \mu = 40$
- $H_a: \mu \neq 40$
- T-test statistic for
n=8, mean = 22.50 and Sd=7.19
- What is the p-value?
- Is this significant?

We do the exercise together



- $t(7)$
- $t = \frac{\text{mean} - \mu}{S/\sqrt{n}}$
- $t = -6.88$
- Table D: go to find $t = -6.88$ with $df = 7$ ($n - 1$)
- $p < 0.001 \longrightarrow$ we can reject H_0 and accept H_a



Almost 7 SE (Standard errors) from $\mu = 40$

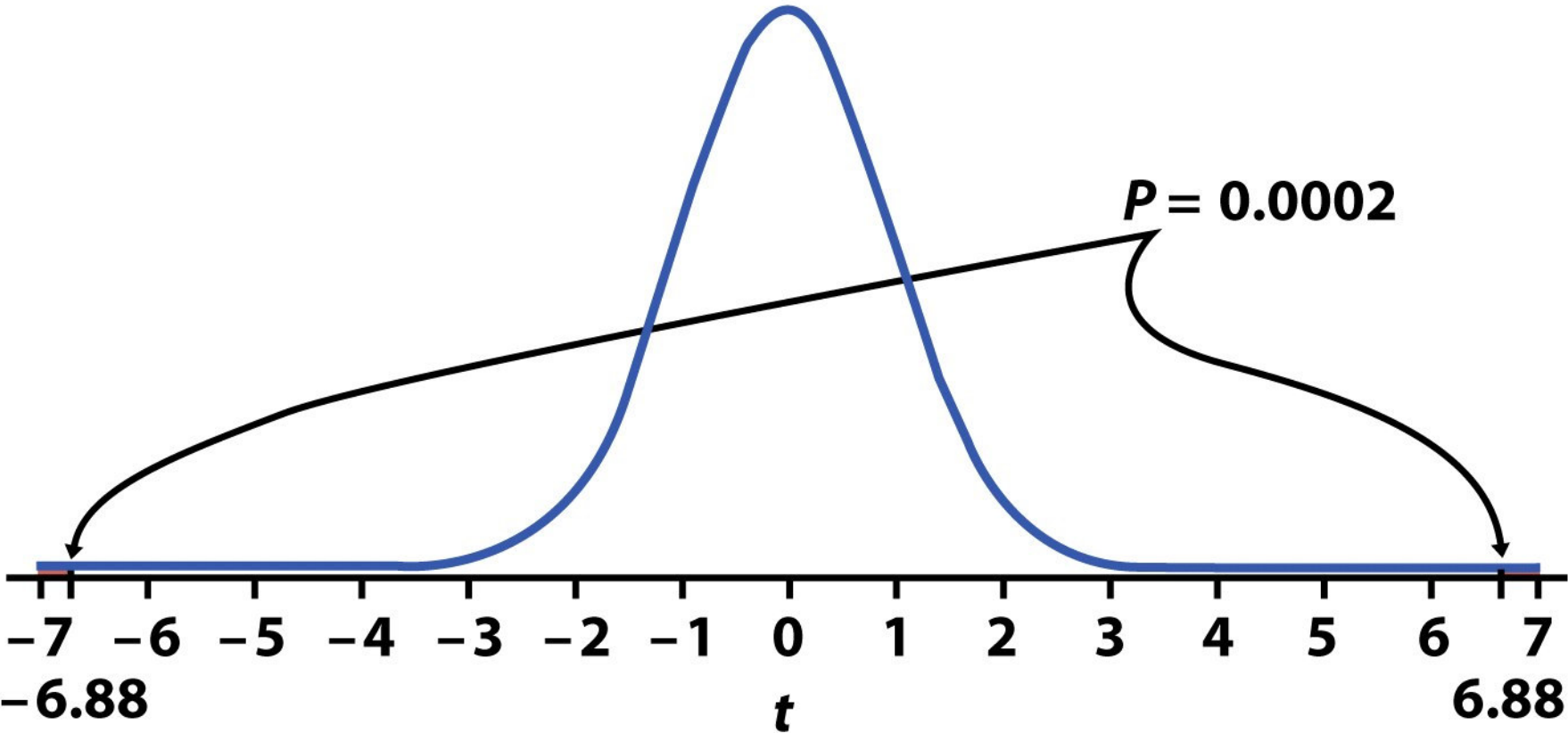


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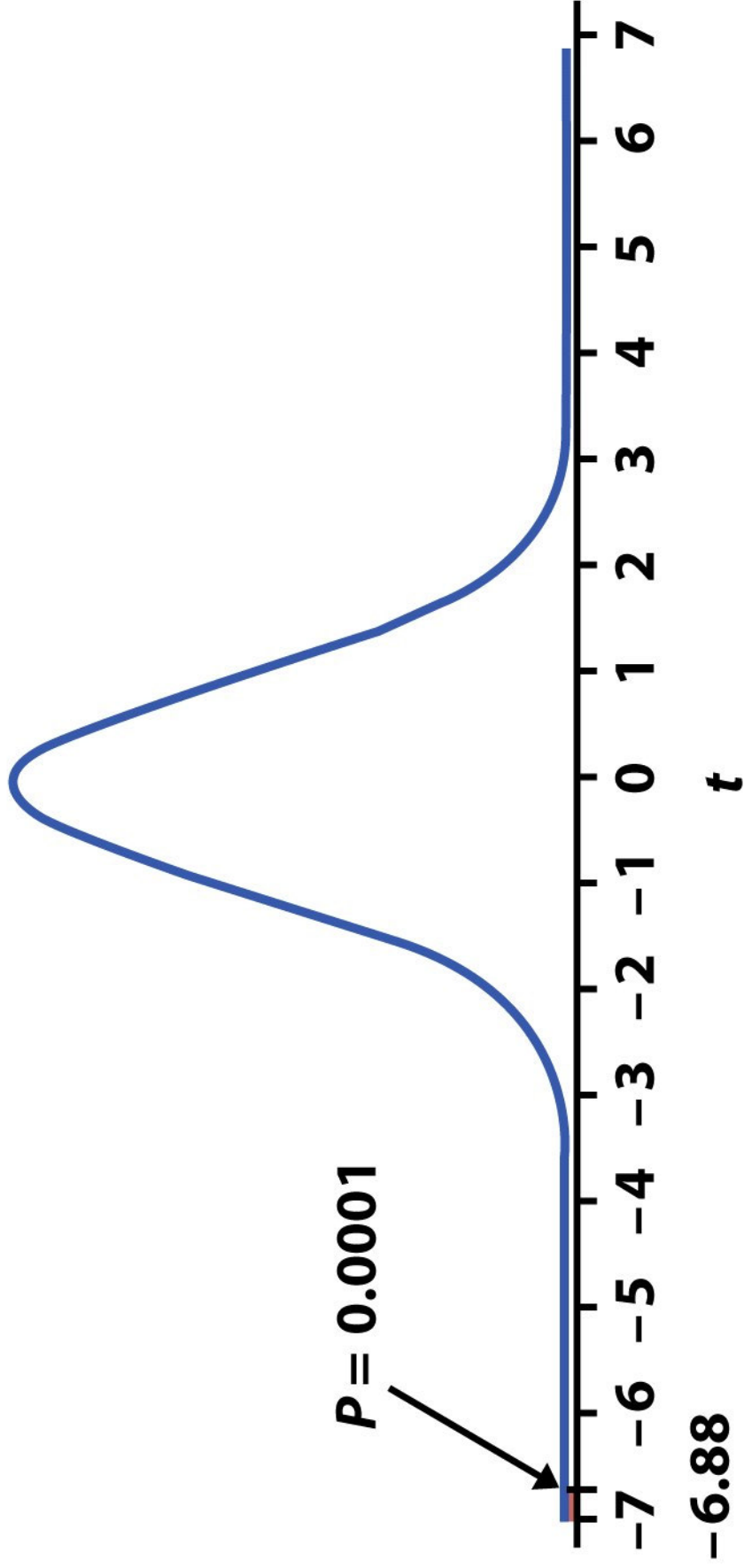


Figure 7-3
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Paired t-tests

- If you have *matched* observations you can perform a one-sample t-test on the *difference*!
- Observations from the same subject but in different conditions, i.e. number of verb produced by aphasic patients before or after speech therapy.



Example

- Aggressive behaviors of dementia patients on days where there is a full moon
- The observations for both conditions (moon days vs other days) are *matched pairs*. This pair could consist of two subjects, but here, the two observations (moon vs no moon) are from one and the same experimental unit, namely the patient.
- We apply the t-statistics to the differences. We want to see if there is a difference!

**TABLE 7.2****Aggressive behaviors of dementia patients**

Patient	Moon days	Other days	Difference	Patient	Moon days	Other days	Difference
1	3.33	0.27	3.06	9	6.00	1.59	4.41
2	3.67	0.59	3.08	10	4.33	0.60	3.73
3	2.67	0.32	2.35	11	3.33	0.65	2.68
4	3.33	0.19	3.14	12	0.67	0.69	-0.02
5	3.33	1.26	2.07	13	1.33	1.26	0.07
6	3.67	0.11	3.56	14	0.33	0.23	0.10
7	4.67	0.30	4.37	15	2.00	0.38	1.62
8	2.67	0.40	2.27				

Table 7-2
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- Mean difference = 2.433; Sd = 1.460
- $t(14)$



Example

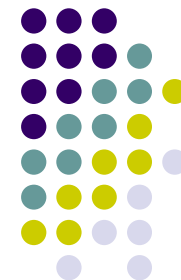
- $H_0? H_a?$
 $H_0: \mu_{diff}=0$
 $H_0: \mu_{diff}>0$
- Calculate the t-statistic?
- What is the p-value?
- Why one-sided testing?

NOTE: in SPSS will calculate the difference for you in the *Paired-Samples T-test*



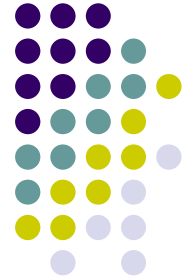
ROBUST PROCEDURES

A statistical inference procedure is called **robust** if the probability calculations required are insensitive to violations of the assumptions made.



Robustness for t-tests

- Number < 15 : use t if distribution appears to be **normal** and there are **no outliers / no strong skew**
- Number ≥ 15 : use t if there are **no outliers / no strong skew**
- Number ≥ 40 : use t *even when there is a strong skew*



Robustness

- **Note:** if number < 15 and not normal or many outliers / strongly skewed:
 - Transformations
 - Non-parametric tests



TWO-SAMPLE PROBLEMS

- The goal of inference is to compare the responses in two groups.
- Each group is considered to be a sample from a distinct population.
- The responses in each group are independent of those in the other group.

Definition, pg 485

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- Note 1: regard experimental and control group as coming from distinct populations, even if they *originate* from the same population through random sampling
- Note 2: independence of observations



Variance of *difference*

- We need to know the standard deviation of the *difference* between the two means ($\text{mean}_1 - \text{mean}_2$)
- Mathematically we can derive that the *variance* of the difference ($\text{mean}_1 - \text{mean}_2$) is:
$$\sigma_1^2 / n_1 + \sigma_2^2 / n_2$$
- So the standard deviation, which is the square root of the variance, is the square root of this formula



TWO-SAMPLE z STATISTIC

Suppose that \bar{X}_1 is the mean of an SRS of size n_1 drawn from an $N(\mu_1, \sigma_1)$ population and that \bar{X}_2 is the mean of an independent SRS of size n_2 drawn from an $N(\mu_2, \sigma_2)$ population. Then the **two-sample z statistic**

$$Z = \frac{(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2) - (\mu_1 - \mu_2)}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}}$$

has the standard normal $N(0, 1)$ sampling distribution.



THE TWO-SAMPLE t SIGNIFICANCE TEST

Suppose that an SRS of size n_1 is drawn from a normal population with unknown mean μ_1 and that an independent SRS of size n_2 is drawn from another normal population with unknown mean μ_2 . To test the hypothesis $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$, compute the **two-sample t statistic**

$$t = \frac{\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2}{\sqrt{\frac{s_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{s_2^2}{n_2}}}$$

and use P -values or critical values for the $t(k)$ distribution, where the degrees of freedom k are either approximated by software or are the smaller of $n_1 - 1$ and $n_2 - 1$.

Definition, pg 489

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[back](#)



Two sample t-statistic

- Estimates σ_1 with Sd_1 and σ_2 with Sd_2
- No z-distribution
- No **t-distribution!**
- But *approximation* of t-distribution $t(k)$ where k is the *approximation* of the degrees of freedom (done by software)



Example

- One class of 21 schoolkids get extra reading activities
- One class of 23 kids (control group) does not get extra activities
- P. 490 gives back-to-back stemplot
- plus normal quantile plots



TABLE 7.4

DRP scores for third-graders

	Treatment group		Control group			
24	61	59	42	33	46	37
43	44	52	43	41	10	42
58	67	62	55	19	17	55
71	49	54	26	54	60	28
43	53	57	62	20	53	48
49	56	33	37	85	42	

Table 7-4
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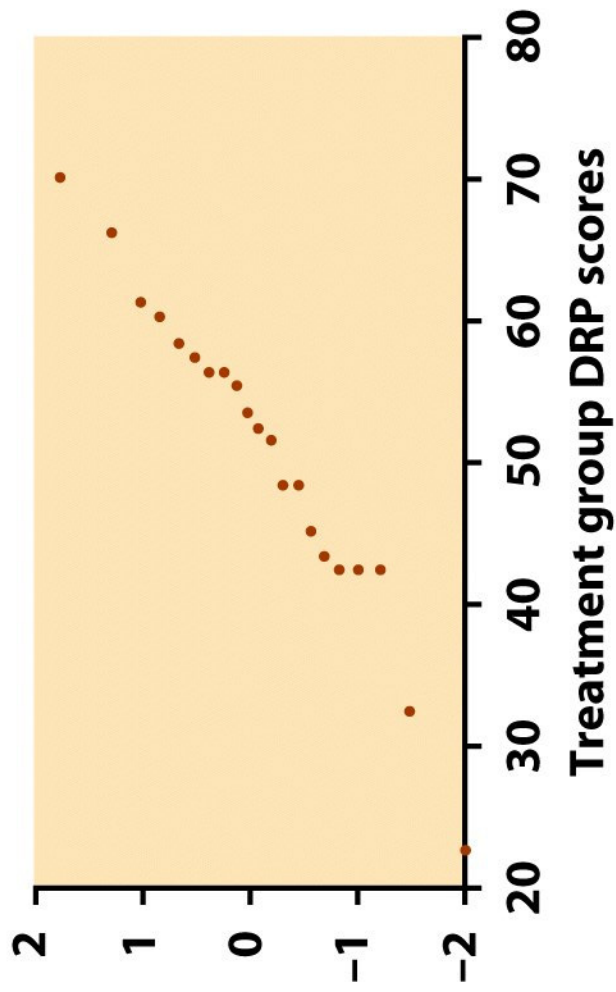
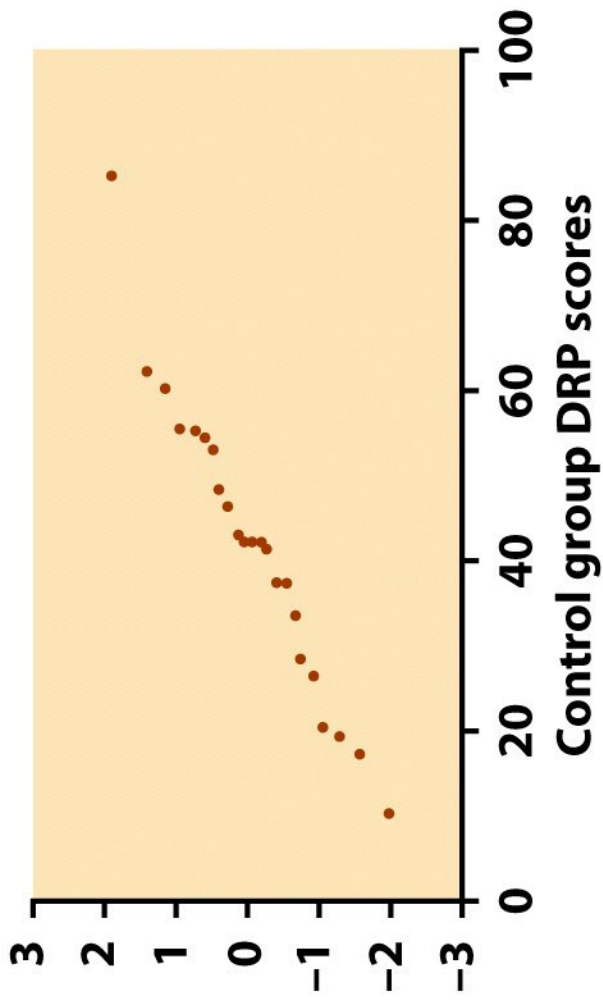
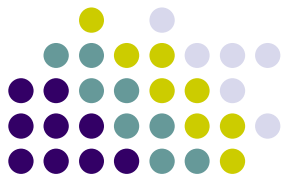


Figure 7-13
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Example

- Descriptive statistics:
 - N (treatment) = 21; mean = 51.48; Sd = 11.01
 - N (control) = 23; mean = 41.52; Sd = 17.15
- Nullhypothesis: $\mu_{\text{treat}} = \mu_{\text{control}}$
- Alternative hypothesis: $\mu_{\text{treat}} > \mu_{\text{control}}$
- Two-sample t-statistic



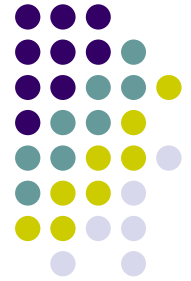
Levene's test

- Tests whether to reject the null hypothesis of equal variances

Independent Samples Test

		Levene's Test for Equality of Variances		t-test for Equality of Means				
		F	Sig.	t	df	Sig. (2-tailed)	Mean Difference	Std. Diff.
DEV	Equal variances assumed	,236	,630	9,909	42	,000	18,5917	1
	Equal variances not assumed			9,792	38,258	,000	18,5917	1

Summary



- t-test is performed when σ is unknown (and estimated with S_d)
- One-sample t-test has t-distribution with $df = n-1$
- Matched Pairs t-test can be performed with one-sample t-test
- Two-sample t-test has an approximate t-distribution; df is calculated by software