MATH 4752/6752 – Mathematical Statistics II Hypothesis Testing

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Definitions. We have the following definitions:

- An assertion about one or multiple random variables is called a **statistical hypothesis**.
- If a statistical hypothesis completely specifies a distribution (type and parameters), then it is called a **simple hypothesis**, otherwise called **composite hypothesis**.
- In hypothesis testing, we also form an alternative hypothesis, denoted by H₁ (or H_A). The original hypothesis is also called a null hypothesis, denoted by H₀.

Example. A drug company wants to test the effective of a new medication on certain disease to see if 90% patients receiving the medication recovers. Then the hypothesis test can be formed as

 H_0 : recovery rate = 0.9 v.s. H_1 : recovery rate = 0.6 where 0.6 is the recovery rate without the medication. Both H_0 and H_1 are simple hypothesis.

Example. A tire manufacturer produces a new model of tires and wants to test if it meets the lifetime standard of 42,000 miles. Then the hypothesis test can be formed as

 H_0 : lifetime \geq 42,000 v.s. H_1 : lifetime < 42,000 Both H_0 and H_1 are composite hypothesis.

This is the standard procedure to **test a statistical hypothesis** H_0 :

- Step 1: Determine the null hypothesis H_0 and alternative hypothesis H_1 .
- Step 2: Design a test statistic as a function of random samples. Partition the set of possible values of this test statistic into two subsets: acceptance region of H₀ and rejection region of H₀. (The rejection region is also called the critical region of the test.)
- Step 3: Conduct an experiment and collect data of the random samples. Compute the value of the test statistic.
- **Step 4:** Accept (or reject) *H*₀ if the computed value falls in the acceptance (or rejection) region.

The test procedure can lead to two types of errors:

• **Type I error** is made if H_0 is rejected when it is true. We denote

 $\alpha = \mathsf{P}(\mathsf{Committing a Type I error})$

 α is also the size of the critical region, and hence also called the **level of significance** of the test.

• **Type II error** is made if H_0 is accepted when it is false. We denote

 $\beta = P(Committing a Type II error)$

	H_0 is true	H_0 is false
Accept H_0	No error	Type II error prob = β
Reject H_0	Type I error prob = α	No error

Example. Suppose that the manufacturer of a new medication wants to test the null hypothesis $\theta = 0.90$ against the alternative hypothesis $\theta = 0.60$. His test statistic is X, the observed number of successes (recoveries) in 20 trials, and he will accept the null hypothesis if x > 14; otherwise, he will reject it. Find α and β .

Solution. We know X follows Binomial $(20, \theta)$. The manufacturer decided that

Acceptance region of
$$H_0 = \{15, 16, ..., 20\}$$

Rejection region of $H_0 = \{0, 1, ..., 14\}$

Hence we obtain

$$\alpha = \mathsf{P}(X \le 14; \theta = 0.90) = \sum_{x=0}^{14} {\binom{20}{x}} 0.90^x (1 - 0.90)^{20-x} = 0.0114$$
$$\beta = \mathsf{P}(X > 14; \theta = 0.60) = \sum_{x=15}^{20} {\binom{20}{x}} 0.60^x (1 - 0.60)^{20-x} = 0.1225$$

Trade off between Type I error and Type II error

Ideally, we would like to have both Type I error and Type II error small, so we have a good chance to make correct decision. However, we cannot reduce both errors unless we increase the random sample size.

For fixed sample size, if α decreases, then β will increase; and vice versa.

For instance, if the manufacturer would accept H_0 if x > 15 instead of x > 14 in the previous example, then

Acceptance region of $H_0 = \{16, 17, ..., 20\}$ Rejection region of $H_0 = \{0, 1, ..., 15\}$

which will result in $\alpha = 0.0433$ and $\beta = 0.0509$. We have smaller β but larger α .

Example. Suppose that we want to test the null hypothesis that the mean of a normal population with $\sigma^2 = 1$ is μ_0 against the alternative hypothesis that it is μ_1 where $\mu_1 > \mu_0$. Find the value of K such that $\bar{x} > K$ provides a critical region of size $\alpha = 0.05$ for a random sample of size n.

Solution. If the true mean is μ_0 , then we know $\frac{\bar{X}-\mu_0}{1/\sqrt{n}} \sim N(0,1)$. Hence we find *K* such that

$$\frac{K - \mu_0}{1/\sqrt{n}} = z_{0.05} = 1.645,$$

solving which yields that



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We can observe several properties from the figure (α is the area of the shaded region, and β is the area of the ruled region):



- The two curves represent the pdfs of $N(\mu_0, \frac{1}{n})$ and $N(\mu_1, \frac{1}{n})$.
- For fixed n, if we reduce α , then K and β will increase.
- If we increase n, then both curves become sharper and more concentrated at their means μ_0 and μ_1 . For the same α value, K will be closer to μ_0 . We can also afford smaller α and β simultaneously.

Example. Suppose that we want to test the null hypothesis that the mean of a normal population with $\sigma^2 = 1$ is $\mu_0 = 10$ against the alternative hypothesis that it is $\mu_1 = 11$. For fixed $\alpha = 0.05$, find the minimum sample size n such that $\beta \leq 0.06$.

Solution. Since $\alpha = 0.05$, we continue to use $z_{0.05} = 1.645$. By the definition of Type II error, we need

$$\beta = \mathsf{P}\left(\bar{X} < 10 + \frac{1.645}{\sqrt{n}}; \mu = 11\right)$$
$$= \mathsf{P}\left(Z < \frac{\left(10 + \frac{1.645}{\sqrt{n}}\right) - 11}{1/\sqrt{n}}\right)$$
$$= \mathsf{P}(Z < -\sqrt{n} + 1.645) \le 0.06.$$

From the normal distribution table we figure that P(Z < -1.55) = 0.0606, therefore we need $-\sqrt{n} + 1.645 \le -1.55$, or $n \ge 11$.

In practice, we want to fix α so that the probability of committing Type I error is upper bounded by α (for continuous distributions we can attain exactly α , but for discrete ones we may not, so we only require α to be an upper bound).

Consider a statistical hypothesis of form

$$H_0: \theta = \theta_0$$
 vs $H_1: \theta = \theta_1$

For a fixed α , it remains to determine a test statistic and its critical region *C* to set up a complete hypothesis test.

If the test statistic and *C* are chosen (usually when we select a test statistic, we also determine *C*, and vice versa) such that they yield the largest $1 - \beta$ (smallest Type II error), then *C* is called the **best critical region** or **most powerful critical region**.

When both null and alternative hypotheses are simple, we have explicit expressions of

$$L_0(x) = f(x; \theta_0), \qquad L_1(x) = f(x; \theta_1),$$

where $f(x; \theta)$ is the joint distribution of the random sample at $x = (x_1, \dots, x_n)$ when the distribution parameter is θ .

If H_0 holds true, we expect $L_0(x)$ to be much larger than $L_1(x)$. Therefore, we use the following way to select C: we specify a number $k \in \mathbb{R}$ such that

$$C = \left\{ x : \frac{L_0(x)}{L_1(x)} \le k \right\}$$

and the size of C is α , i.e.,

$$\mathsf{P}(x \in C \text{ when } \theta = \theta_0) = \int_C f(x; \theta_0) \, dx = \int_C L_0(x) \, dx = \alpha.$$

It turns out that this way automatically yields the most powerful critical region:

Neyman-Pearson Lemma. Consider a statistical hypothesis of form

 $H_0: \theta = \theta_0$ vs $H_1: \theta = \theta_1$.

If k is the number such that

$$C = \left\{ \boldsymbol{x} : \frac{L_0(\boldsymbol{x})}{L_1(\boldsymbol{x})} \le k \right\}$$

is a critical region of size α , then C is the most powerful critical region.

Proof. Let C' denote the complement of C. Suppose D is another critical region of size α . Then

$$\alpha = \int_C L_0(x) \, dx = \int_{C \cap D} L_0(x) \, dx + \int_{C \cap D'} L_0(x) \, dx$$
$$\alpha = \int_D L_0(x) \, dx = \int_{C \cap D} L_0(x) \, dx + \int_{C' \cap D} L_0(x) \, dx$$

Proof (cont). Equating the two yields

$$\int_{C\cap D'} L_0(x) \, dx = \int_{C'\cap D} L_0(x) \, dx.$$

On the other hand, we have

$$\begin{split} \int_{C \cap D'} L_1(x) \, dx &\geq \int_{C \cap D'} \frac{L_0(x)}{k} \, dx \qquad (\frac{L_0(x)}{L_1(x)} \leq k \text{ when } x \in C) \\ &= \int_{C' \cap D} \frac{L_0(x)}{k} \, dx \qquad (\text{use equality above}) \\ &\geq \int_{C' \cap D} L_1(x) \, dx \qquad (\frac{L_0(x)}{L_1(x)} > k \text{ when } x \in C') \end{split}$$

Hence we have

$$(\text{Power of } C) = \int_C L_1(x) \, dx = \int_{C \cap D} L_1(x) \, dx + \int_{C \cap D'} L_1(x) \, dx$$
$$\geq \int_{C \cap D} L_1(x) \, dx + \int_{C' \cap D} L_1(x) \, dx$$
$$= \int_D L_1(x) \, dx = (\text{Power of } D).$$

Example. A random sample of size *n* from a normal population with $\sigma^2 = 1$ is to be used to test the null hypothesis $\mu = \mu_0$ against the alternative hypothesis $\mu = \mu_1$ where $\mu_1 > \mu_0$. Use the Neyman-Pearson lemma to find the most powerful critical region of size α .

Solution. We first have

$$f(x;\mu) = (2\pi)^{-n/2} e^{-\frac{1}{2}\sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \mu)^2}.$$

Therefore

$$\frac{L_0(x)}{L_1(x)} = \frac{f(x;\mu_0)}{f(x;\mu_1)} = e^{\frac{n}{2}(\mu_1^2 - \mu_0^2) + (\mu_0 - \mu_1) \cdot \sum_{i=1}^n x_i} \le k$$

if any only if

$$\bar{x} \ge K := \frac{\frac{n}{2}(\mu_1^2 - \mu_0^2) - \ln k}{n(\mu_1 - \mu_0)}.$$

Solution (cont). Therefore we select K such that

$$C = \left\{ x : \frac{L_0(x)}{L_1(x)} \le k \right\} = \{ x : \bar{x} \ge K \}$$

is a critical region of size α . In other words, we need to find K such that

$$\alpha = \int_C f(x;\mu_0) \, dx = \mathsf{P}(\bar{X} \ge K;\mu = \mu_0) = \mathsf{P}\left(\frac{X - \mu_0}{1/\sqrt{n}} \ge \frac{K - \mu_0}{1/\sqrt{n}}\right)$$

or equivalently

$$K = \mu_0 + \frac{z_\alpha}{\sqrt{n}}$$

where z_{α} is the value such that $P(Z \ge z_{\alpha}) = \alpha$ for $Z \sim N(0, 1)$.

In summary, we choose \overline{X} as the test statistic and reject H_0 if $\overline{x} \ge K = \mu_0 + \frac{z_\alpha}{\sqrt{n}}$. By Neyman-Pearson Lemma, C is the most powerful critical region.

Let R_0 and R_1 denote the regions of θ specified by H_0 and H_1 . Suppose we determined a test statistic and a critical region C, denote

 $\alpha(\theta) = \mathsf{P}(\mathsf{Commit to Type I error when the parameter is }\theta)$

= P(Test statistic is in C when the parameter is θ)

 $\beta(\theta) = P(\text{Commit to Type II error when the parameter is }\theta)$

= P(Test statistic is in C' when the parameter is θ)

Then we define the **power function** on $R_0 \cup R_1$ of this test as

$$\pi(\theta) = \int_C f(\boldsymbol{x}; \theta) \, d\boldsymbol{x} = \begin{cases} \alpha(\theta), & \text{if } \theta \in R_0 \\ 1 - \beta(\theta), & \text{if } \theta \in R_1 \end{cases}$$

Example. Consider a hypothesis test on medication effectiveness with

 $H_0: \theta \ge 0.90$ vs $H_1: \theta < 0.90$.

Suppose we conduct trials on 20 persons, use $X \sim \text{Binomial}(20, \theta)$ as the test statistic, and set the critical region $C = \{x : x \leq 14\}$. Find the power function of this test.

Solution. For any θ , we have

$$\alpha(\theta) = 1 - \beta(\theta) = \sum_{x=0}^{14} {\binom{20}{x}} \theta^x (1-\theta)^{20-x}$$

Hence the power function is

$$\pi(\theta) = \sum_{x=0}^{14} {\binom{20}{x}} \theta^x (1-\theta)^{20-x}$$

for $\theta \in R_0 = [0.90, 1]$ and $\theta \in R_1 = [0, 0.90)$.





- $\pi(\theta)$ is always between 0 and 1.
- The shape of $\pi(\theta)$ depends on the choice of *C*. For example, if $C = \{x : x \le 15\}$, then curve of $\pi(\theta)$ will be slightly higher.
- For continuous distributions and the critical region C having size α, we have π(θ*) = α where θ* is the boundary of R₀.
- Ideally, we want π(θ) to be close to 0 when θ ∈ R₀ and 1 when θ ∈ R₁, like the dashed curve above.

Consider continuous distributions. If H_0 is a simple hypothesis, i.e., $R_0 = \{\theta_0\}$ is a singleton, then any critical region of size α must have $\pi(\theta_0) = \alpha$. Then we want to choose C such that $\pi(\theta)$ is as large as possible for every $\theta \neq \theta_0$.

If *C* is a critical region of size α with power function π_C , and $\pi_C(\theta) \ge \pi_D(\theta)$ for all θ and any critical region *D* of size α with power function π_D , then *C* is called the **uniformly most powerful critical region**. Suppose there are three choices of C_1, C_2, C_3 , corresponding to π_{C_1} (dotted), π_{C_2} (dashed), π_{C_3} (solid) respectively:



- C_1 is uniformly more powerful than C_2 .
- C_1 is not uniformly more powerful than C_3 , nor vice versa.
- If $R_1 = \{\theta : \theta > \theta_0\}$, then C_3 is uniformly more powerful than C_1 .

Recall that Neyman-Pearson Lemma provides a means to construct the most powerful critical region when both H_0 and H_1 are simple hypotheses.

For cases where at least one of H_0 and H_1 is composite, we can modify the method in Neyman-Pearson Lemma to construct a critical region (which determines the test) of satisfactory power.

Let Ω denote the set of all possible values of θ , and R_i the subset of Ω specified by H_i for i = 0, 1. (For simplicity, we only consider $R_1 = R'_0$.) For any random sample of size n, define

$$\lambda(\boldsymbol{x}) = \frac{\max_{\theta \in R_0} f(\boldsymbol{x}; \theta)}{\max_{\theta \in \Omega} f(\boldsymbol{x}; \theta)} = \frac{L(\theta^*; \boldsymbol{x})}{L(\theta^{**}; \boldsymbol{x})}$$

where $f(x; \theta)$ is the joint pdf of the random sample at $x = (x_1, \ldots, x_n), \theta^*$ and θ^{**} are the maximum likelihood estimates of the likelihood function $L(\cdot; x)$ on R_0 and Ω respectively. Notice that $0 \le \lambda(x) \le 1$ since the numerator is the maximum of $L(\theta; x)$ on a region R_0 smaller than Ω . Intuitively, if $\lambda(x)$ is small, then we should reject H_0 .

We define the **likelihood ratio statistic** Λ :

$$\Lambda = \lambda(X)$$
, where $X = (X_1, \dots, X_n)$.

Then the critical region C specified by

$$C = \{\lambda(\boldsymbol{x}) \le k\}$$

for some 0 < k < 1 determines a hypothesis test, called **likelihood ratio test**, of

$$H_0: \ \theta \in R_0 \qquad \text{vs} \qquad H_1: \ \theta \in R'_0.$$

If H_0 is simple, then $R_0 = \{\theta_0\}$ is a singleton, and k should be chosen such that the size of C is α . In other words, k is chosen such that

$$\mathsf{P}(\lambda(\boldsymbol{X}) \le k; \theta_0) = \int_C f(\boldsymbol{x}; \theta_0) \, d\boldsymbol{x} = \alpha$$

where $C = \{\lambda(x) \leq k\}$.

If H_0 is composite, then k should be chosen such that the power function $\pi(\theta)$ of C determined by k attains maximum value α over R_0 . In other words, k is chosen such that

$$\max_{\theta \in R_0} \mathsf{P}(\lambda(X) \le k; \theta) = \max_{\theta \in R_0} \int_C f(x; \theta) \, dx = \alpha$$

where $C = \{\lambda(x) \le k\}.$

Example. Find the critical region of the likelihood ratio test for

 $H_0: \mu = \mu_0 \quad \text{vs} \quad H_1: \mu \neq \mu_0$

on basis of a random sample of size *n* from normal population $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ with known σ^2 .

Solution. We note that $R_0 = {\mu_0}$ and hence the maximizer of the likelihood function on R_0 is μ_0 . Hence

$$\max_{\mu \in R_0} f(x;\mu) = f(x;\mu_0) = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-n/2} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu_0)^2},$$

where $f(x; \mu)$ is the joint pdf of the random sample $X = (X_1, \ldots, X_n)$ when the mean is μ .

Note that $\Omega = \mathbb{R}$ and hence the maximizer of the likelihood on Ω is \bar{x} , and

$$\max_{\mu \in \Omega} f(x; \mu) = f(x; \bar{x}) = (2\pi\sigma^2)^{-n/2} e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}$$

Solution (cont). Therefore we have

$$\lambda(x) = \frac{f(x;\mu_0)}{f(x;\bar{x})} = \frac{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{-n/2}e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \mu_0)^2}}{(2\pi\sigma^2)^{-n/2}e^{-\frac{1}{2\sigma^2}\sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \bar{x})^2}} = e^{-\frac{n}{2\sigma^2}(\bar{x} - \mu_0)^2}$$

Thus the likelihood ratio statistics $\Lambda = \lambda(X)$, and the critical region *C* of the likelihood ratio test is given by

$$C = \{\lambda : \lambda = \lambda(x) \le k\}$$

for some $k \in (0, 1)$ such that the size of C is α .

Notice that $\lambda(x) \leq k$ if any only if

$$|\bar{x} - \mu_0| \ge \left(-\frac{2\sigma^2}{n}\ln k\right)^{1/2} =: K.$$

Solution (cont). On the other hand, we know $\bar{X} \sim N(\mu_0, \frac{\sigma^2}{n})$ when the mean is μ_0 , which implies

$$\mathsf{P}\left(|\bar{X}-\mu_0| \ge z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}\right) = \alpha.$$

Hence we have $K = z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$.

Therefore the likelihood ratio test reduces to the test given by

$$|\bar{x} - \mu_0| \ge z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}.$$

Usually it is not difficult to obtain likelihood ratio test statistics (we need to find maximizers of likelihood function over R_0 and Ω explicitly). For instance, in the previous example, we get

$$\Lambda = \lambda(X) = e^{-\frac{n}{2\sigma^2}(\bar{X} - \mu_0)^2}.$$

If H_0 is simple, then no maximization is needed for the numerator.

However, it can be difficult to derive the probability distribution of Λ . In the previous example, we have normal population and thus get

$$-2\ln\Lambda = \frac{(\bar{X} - \mu)^2}{1/n} = \left(\frac{\bar{X} - \mu}{1/\sqrt{n}}\right)^2 \sim \chi_1^2.$$

It is shown that $-2 \ln \Lambda$ approximately follows χ_1^2 distribution for other types of populations when *n* is large. We can construct critical regions based on this approximation.

Now we consider several typical hypothesis tests involving means, variances, and proportions.

A statistical test is called a **test of significance** if it specifies a simple null hypothesis H_0 , a composite alternative hypothesis H_1 , and $\alpha \in (0, 1)$ (α is the size of the critical region). Here α is called the **level of significance**.

Consider a null hypothesis H_0 : $\theta = \theta_0$ where θ is a scalar parameter.

If $H_1 : \theta \neq \theta_0$, then H_1 is a **two-sided** alternative hypothesis, and we reject H_0 if the estimate $\hat{\theta}$ is such that $|\hat{\theta} - \theta|$ large. This is called a **two-sided test**.

If $H_1 : \theta < \theta_0$, then H_1 is a **one-sided** alternative hypothesis, and we reject H_0 if the estimate $\hat{\theta}$ is such that $\theta_0 - \theta$ large. This is called a **one-sided test**.

Example. Consider a normal distribution $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ with known σ^2 . Suppose we have a two-sided test with level of significance α about the mean μ :

$$H_0: \mu = \mu_0 \quad \text{vs} \quad H_1: \mu \neq \mu_0.$$

Then we can use \bar{X} as the test statistic and set the critical region C as

$$|\bar{x} - \mu_0| \ge z_{\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}.$$



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Example. Consider a normal distribution $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ with known σ^2 . Suppose we have a one-sided test with level of significance α about the mean μ :

$$H_0: \mu = \mu_0$$
 vs $H_1: \mu > \mu_0$

Then we can use \overline{X} as the test statistic and set the critical region C as

$$\bar{x} \ge \mu_0 + z_\alpha \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}.$$



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Example. Consider a normal distribution $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ with known σ^2 . Suppose we have a one-sided test with level of significance α about the mean μ :

$$H_0: \mu = \mu_0$$
 vs $H_1: \mu < \mu_0.$

Then we can use \bar{X} as the test statistic and set the critical region C as

$$\bar{x} \le \mu_0 - z_\alpha \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}.$$



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Traditionally, it has been the custom to outline tests of hypotheses by means of the following steps:

- Step 1: Formulate H_0 , H_1 , and specify α .
- Step 2: Using the sampling distribution of an appropriate test statistic, determine a critical region of size α .
- Step 3: Determine the value of the test statistic from the sample data.
- Step 4: Check whether the value of the test statistic falls into the critical region and, accordingly, reject the null hypothesis, or reserve judgment. (Note that we do not accept the null hypothesis because β, the probability of false acceptance, is not specified in a test of significance.)

With the advent of computers, we can also compute the *p*-value based on the observation of random sample. For example, the *p*-value = $P(\bar{X} \ge \bar{x})$ where \bar{x} is the value of the sample mean obtained in the one-sided test

$$H_0: \mu = \mu_0$$
 vs $H_1: \mu > \mu_0.$



As we can see, the *p*-value is the lowest level of significance at which the null hypothesis could have been rejected.

We can modify the steps of hypothesis tests if we opt to use *p*-value as follows:

- Step 1: Formulate H_0 , H_1 , and specify α .
- Step 2': Specify the test statistic.
- Step 3': Determine the value of the test statistic and the corresponding *p*-value from the sample data.
- Step 4': Check whether the *p*-value is less than or equal to α, accordingly, reject the null hypothesis, or reserve judgment.

Example. Suppose that it is known from experience that the standard deviation of the weight of 8-ounce packages of cookies made by a certain bakery is 0.16 ounce. To check whether its production is under control on a given day, that is, to check whether the true average weight of the packages is 8 ounces, employees select a random sample of 25 packages and find that their mean weight is x = 8.091 ounces. Since the bakery stands to lose money when $\mu > 8$ and the customer loses out when $\mu < 8$, test the null hypothesis $\mu = 8$ against the alternative hypothesis $\mu \neq 8$ at the 0.01 level of significance.

Key information: Normal population $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ with $\sigma = 0.16$. Want to test

$$H_0: \mu = 8$$
 vs $H_1: \mu \neq 8$

with level of significance $\alpha = 0.01$. Obtained $\bar{x} = 8.091$ from a random sample of size n = 25.

Solution. We proceed with the four steps:

• Step 1. Set up the test

$$H_0: \mu = 8$$
 vs $H_1: \mu \neq 8$

with level of significance $\alpha = 0.01$.

• Step 2. Decide to use test statistic $Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$ and rejection region

$$|z| = \left|\frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}\right| \ge z_{\alpha/2} = z_{0.005} = 2.575.$$

• Step 3. Substituting the values $\bar{x} = 8.091$, n = 25, $\sigma = 0.16$, we obtain

$$z = \frac{8.091 - 8}{0.16/\sqrt{25}} = 2.84$$

• Step 4. Since $z = 2.84 > 2.575 = z_{0.005}$, we reject H_0 .

Example. Suppose that 100 high-performance tires made by a certain manufacturer lasted on the average 21,819 miles with a standard deviation of 1,295 miles. Test the null hypothesis $\mu = 22,000$ miles against the alternative hypothesis $\mu < 22,000$ miles at the 0.05 level of significance.

Key information: Normal population $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ with $\sigma = 1,295$. Want to test

 $H_0: \mu = 22,000$ vs $H_1: \mu < 22,000$

with level of significance $\alpha = 0.05$. Obtained $\bar{x} = 21,819$ from a random sample of size n = 100.

Solution. We proceed with the four steps:

• Step 1. Set up the test

 $H_0: \mu = 22,000$ vs $H_1: \mu < 22,000$

with level of significance $\alpha = 0.05$.

• Step 2. Decide to use test statistic $Z = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}$ and rejection region

$$z = \frac{x - \mu_0}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}} \le -z_\alpha = -z_{0.05} = -1.645.$$

• Step 3. Substituting the values $\bar{x} = 21,819, n = 100, \sigma = 1,295$, we obtain

$$z = \frac{21819 - 22000}{1295/\sqrt{100}} = -1.40$$

• Step 4. Since $z = -1.40 > -1.645 = -z_{0.05}$, we do not reject H_0 .

Example. The specifications for a certain kind of ribbon call for a mean breaking strength of 185 pounds. If five pieces randomly selected from different rolls have breaking strengths of 171.6, 191.8, 178.3, 184.9, and 189.1 pounds, test the null hypothesis $\mu = 185$ pounds against the alternative hypothesis $\mu < 185$ pounds at the 0.05 level of significance.

Key information: Normal population $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ with **unknown** σ . Want to test

 $H_0: \mu = 185$ vs $H_1: \mu < 185$

with level of significance $\alpha = 0.05$. Obtained the following values of random sample of size n = 5:

x_1	x_2	x3	x_{4}	x_5
171.6	191.8	178.3	184.9	189.1

We need to use t distribution since n < 30.

Solution. We proceed with the four steps:

• Step 1. Set up the test

 $H_0: \mu = 185$ vs $H_1: \mu < 185$

with level of significance $\alpha = 0.05$.

• Step 2. Decide to use test statistic $T = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{S/\sqrt{n}}$ and rejection region

$$t = \frac{x - \mu_0}{s/\sqrt{n}} \le -t_{\alpha, n-1} = -t_{0.05, 4} = -2.132$$

• Step 3. Based on the data table we obtain the values $\bar{x} = 183.1$, n = 5, s = 8.2, we obtain

$$t = \frac{183.1 - 185}{8.2/\sqrt{5}} = -0.51$$

• Step 4. Since $t = -0.51 > -2.132 = -z_{0.05}$, we do not reject H_0 .

Example. An experiment is performed to determine whether the average nicotine content of one kind of cigarette exceeds that of another kind by 0.20 milligram. If $n_1 = 50$ cigarettes of the first kind had an average nicotine content of $x_1 = 2.61$ milligrams with a standard deviation of $\sigma_1 = 0.12$ milligram, whereas $n_2 = 40$ cigarettes of the other kind had an average nicotine content of $\bar{x}_2 = 2.38$ milligrams with a standard deviation of $\sigma_2 = 0.14$ milligram, test the null hypothesis $\mu_1 - \mu_2 = 0.20$ against the alternative hypothesis $\mu_1 - \mu_2 \neq 0.20$ at the 0.05 level of significance. Base the decision on the *p*-value corresponding to the value of the appropriate test statistic.

Key information: Two normal populations $N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$ with $\sigma_1 = 0.12$ and $\sigma_2 = 0.14$. Want to test

 $H_0: \mu_1 - \mu_2 = 0.20$ vs $H_1: \mu_1 - \mu_2 \neq 0.20$

with level of significance $\alpha = 0.05$. Obtained $\bar{x}_1 = 2.61$ with $n_1 = 50$ and $\bar{x}_2 = 2.38$ with $n_2 = 40$. Use *p*-value.

Remark. Since $n_1, n_2 \ge 30$, we can use sample standard deviations s_i in place of σ_i when the latter are unknown.

Solution. We proceed with the four steps:

• Step 1. Set up the test

 $H_0: \mu_1 - \mu_2 = 0.20$ vs $H_1: \mu_1 - \mu_2 \neq 0.20$ with level of significance $\alpha = 0.05$. Let $\delta = 0.20$.

- Step 2'. Decide to use test statistic $Z = \frac{(\bar{X}_1 \bar{X}_2) \delta}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}}.$
- Step 3'. Substituting the values $\bar{x}_1 = 2.61$, $\bar{x}_2 = 2.38$, $\delta = 0.20$, $\sigma_1 = 0.12$, $\sigma_2 = 0.14$, $n_1 = 50$, and $n_2 = 40$ into this formula, we get

$$z = \frac{(2.61 - 2.38) - 0.20}{\sqrt{\frac{0.12^2}{50} + \frac{0.14^2}{40}}} = 1.08$$

Therefore the *p*-value is $2 \cdot (0.5000 - 0.3599) = 0.2802$, where P($0 \le Z_0 \le 1.08$) = 0.3599 for $Z_0 \sim N(0, 1)$.

• Step 4'. Since the *p*-value 0.2802 > 0.05, we do not reject H_0 .

Example. In the comparison of two kinds of paint, a consumer testing service finds that four 1-gallon cans of one brand cover on the average 546 square feet with a standard deviation of 31 square feet, whereas four 1-gallon cans of another brand cover on the average 492 square feet with a standard deviation of 26 square feet. Assuming that the two populations sampled are normal and have equal variances, test the null hypothesis $\mu_1 - \mu_2 = 0$ against the alternative hypothesis $\mu_1 - \mu_2 > 0$ at the 0.05 level of significance. This is an example of **two-sample** *t* **test**.

Key information: Two normal populations $N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$ with **unknown but equal** σ_1 and σ_2 . Want to test

$$H_0: \mu_1 - \mu_2 = 0$$
 vs $H_1: \mu_1 - \mu_2 > 0$

with level of significance $\alpha = 0.05$. Obtained $\bar{x}_1 = 546$, $s_1 = 31$ with $n_1 = 4$ and $\bar{x}_2 = 492$, $s_2 = 26$ with $n_2 = 4$. Notice the **small sample** sizes. We need to use *t* distribution with pooled sample variance.

Solution. We proceed with the four steps:

• Step 1. Set up the test

 $H_0: \mu_1 - \mu_2 = 0$ vs $H_1: \mu_1 - \mu_2 > 0$

with level of significance $\alpha = 0.05$. Let $\delta = 0$.

• Step 2. Decide to use test statistic

$$T = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2 - \delta}{S_p \sqrt{\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}}}, \quad \text{where} \quad S_p^2 = \frac{(n_1 - 1) S_1^2 + (n_2 - 1) S_2^2}{n_1 + n_2 - 2}$$

and set rejection region as $t > t_{\alpha,n_1+n_2-2} = t_{0.05,6} = 1.943$.

Solution (cont).

• Step 3. Substituting the values $\bar{x}_1 = 546$, $\bar{x}_2 = 492$, $\delta = 0$, $s_1 = 31$, $s_2 = 26$, $n_1 = 4$, and $n_2 = 4$ into this formula, we get

$$s_p^2 = \frac{(4-1)31^2 + (4-1)26^2}{4+4-2} = 28.609^2$$
$$t = \frac{546 - 492 - 0}{28.609\sqrt{\frac{1}{4} + \frac{1}{4}}} = 2.67$$

• Step 4. Since $t = 2.67 > t_{0.05,6} = 1.943$, we reject H_0 .

Example. Suppose that the uniformity of the thickness of a part used in a semiconductor is critical and that measurements of the thickness of a random sample of 18 such parts have the variance $s_2 = 0.68$, where the measurements are in thousandths of an inch. The process is considered to be under control if the variation of the thicknesses is given by a variance not greater than 0.36. Assuming that the measurements constitute a random sample from a normal population, test the null hypothesis $\sigma^2 = 0.36$ against the alternative hypothesis $\sigma^2 > 0.36$ at the 0.05 level of significance.

Key information: Normal population $N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ with unknown σ . Want to test

$$H_0: \sigma^2 = 0.36$$
 vs $H_1: \sigma^2 > 0.36$

with level of significance $\alpha = 0.05$. Obtained sample variance $s^2 = 0.68$ of random sample of size n = 18.

Solution. We proceed with the four steps:

• Step 1. Set up the test

$$H_0: \sigma^2 = 0.36$$
 vs $H_1: \sigma^2 > 0.36$

with level of significance $\alpha = 0.05$. Denote $\sigma_0^2 = 0.36$.

• Step 2. Decide to use test statistic $\chi^2 = \frac{(n-1)S^2}{\sigma_0^2}$ and rejection region

$$\chi^2 > \chi^2_{0.05,17} = 27.587$$

• Step 3. Based on the data table we obtain the values $s^2 = 0.68$, n = 18, we obtain

$$\chi^2 = \frac{17 \cdot 0.68}{0.36} = 32.11$$

• Step 4. Since $\chi^2 = 32.11 > 27.587 = \chi^2_{0.05,17}$, we reject H_0 .

Example. In comparing the variability of the tensile strength of two kinds of structural steel, an experiment yielded the following results: $n_1 = 13$, $s_1^2 = 19.2$, $n_2 = 16$, and $s_2^2 = 3.5$, where the units of measurement are 1,000 pounds per square inch. Assuming that the measurements constitute independent random samples from two normal populations, test the null hypothesis $\sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2$ against the alternative $\sigma_1^2 \neq \sigma_2^2$ at the 0.02 level of significance.

Key information: Two normal populations $N(\mu_i, \sigma_i^2)$ with unknown σ_i . Want to test

$$H_0: \ \sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2 \qquad \text{vs} \qquad H_1: \ \sigma_1^2 \neq \sigma_2^2$$

with level of significance $\alpha = 0.02$. Obtained data $n_1 = 13$, $s_1^2 = 19.2$, $n_2 = 16$, and $s_2^2 = 3.5$.

Solution. We proceed with the four steps:

• Step 1. Set up the test

$$H_0: \sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2$$
 vs $H_1: \sigma_1^2 \neq \sigma_2^2$

with level of significance $\alpha = 0.02$.

• Step 2. Decide to use test statistic $\frac{S_1^2}{S_2^2}$ and rejection region

$$\frac{s_1^2}{s_2^2} \ge f_{\alpha/2, n_1 - 1, n_2 - 1} = f_{0.01, 12, 15} = 3.67$$

• Step 3. Based on the data table we obtain the values $s_1^2 = 19.2$, $s_2^2 = 3.5$, we obtain

$$\frac{s_1^2}{s_2^2} = \frac{19.2}{3.5} = 5.49.$$

• Step 4. Since
$$\frac{s_1^2}{s_2^2} = 5.49 > 3.67 = f_{0.02,12,15}$$
, we reject H_0 .

Example. If x = 4 of n = 20 patients suffered serious side effects from a new medication, test the null hypothesis $\theta = 0.50$ against the alternative hypothesis $\theta \neq 0.50$ at the 0.05 level of significance. Here θ is the true proportion of patients suffering serious side effects from the new medication.

Key information: Binomial distribution Binomial $(20, \theta)$. Want to test

$$H_0: \theta = 0.50$$
 vs $H_1: \theta \neq 0.50$

with level of significance $\alpha = 0.05$. Obtained data x = 4 and n = 20. (Note the small sample size.)

Solution. We proceed with the four steps:

• Step 1. Set up the test

 $H_0: \theta = 0.50$ vs $H_1: \theta \neq 0.50$

with level of significance $\alpha = 0.05$.

- Step 2'. Decide to use test statistic X.
- Step 3'. Based on x = 4 we obtain

 $P(X \le x) = P(X \le 4) = 0.0059.$

The *p*-value is $2 \cdot 0.0059 = 0.0118$.

• Step 4'. Since *p*-value 0.0118 < 0.05, we reject H_0 .

Example. An oil company claims that less than 20 percent of all car owners have not tried its gasoline. Test this claim at the 0.01 level of significance if a random check reveals that 22 of 200 car owners have not tried the oil company's gasoline.

Key information: Binomial distribution Binomial $(200, \theta)$. Want to test

 $H_0: \theta = 0.20$ vs $H_1: \theta < 0.20$

with level of significance $\alpha = 0.01$. Obtained data x = 22 and n = 200. (Note the large sample size, we can use normal distribution for approximation.) **Solution.** We proceed with the four steps:

• Step 1. Set up the test

$$H_0: \theta = 0.20$$
 vs $H_1: \theta < 0.20$

with level of significance $\alpha = 0.01$. Denote $\theta_0 = 0.20$.

- Step 2. Decide to use test statistic $Z = \frac{X n\theta_0}{\sqrt{n\theta_0(1 \theta_0)}}$ and reject if $z < -z_{0.01} = -2.33$.
- Step 3. Based on x = 22, n = 200, we obtain

$$z = \frac{22 - 200 \cdot 0.20}{\sqrt{200 \cdot 0.20 \cdot (1 - 0.20)}} = -3.18$$

• Step 4. Since z = -3.18 < -2.33, we reject H_0 .

Consider the scenario with k proportions $\theta_1, \ldots, \theta_k$:

	# Success	# Failure
Sample 1 Sample 2	$x_1 \\ x_2$	$n_1 - x_1 \\ n_2 - x_2$
÷	:	÷
Sample k	x_k	$n_k - x_k$

Suppose we are interested in the following test:

 $H_0: \theta_1 = \cdots = \theta_k = \theta_0$ vs $H_1:$ not every θ_k equals θ_0

with level of significance α . Recall that for independent $X_i \sim \text{Binomial}(n_i, \theta_i)$ with large n_i there is

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{(X_i - n_i \theta_i)^2}{n_i \theta_i (1 - \theta_i)} \sim \chi_k^2$$

So we can use $\chi^2 = \sum_{i=1}^k \frac{(x_i - n_i \theta_0)^2}{n_i \theta_0 (1 - \theta_0)}$ and reject H_0 if $\chi^2 > \chi^2_{\alpha,k}$.

Usually θ_0 is unknown, so we instead consider the test

 $H_0: \theta_1 = \cdots = \theta_k$ vs $H_1: \theta_k$'s are not all equal

with level of significance α . In this case, we substitute θ with the pooled estimate:

$$\widehat{\theta} = \frac{x_1 + \dots + x_k}{n_1 + \dots + n_k}$$

and reject H_0 if

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{(x_i - n_i \hat{\theta})^2}{n_i \hat{\theta} (1 - \hat{\theta})} > \chi^2_{\alpha, k-1}$$

Note that we lose one degree of freedom since $\hat{\theta}$ is estimated from data!

	# Success	# Failure
Sample 1	x_1	$n_1 - x_1$
Sample 2	<i>x</i> ₂	$n_2 - x_2$
: Comple <i>l</i>	:	:
Sample k	x_k	$n_k - x_k$

It is customary to consider this data table as a $k \times 2$ matrix with

$$f_{ij} = \text{the } (i, j)\text{th entry}$$
$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{x_1 + \dots + x_k}{n_1 + \dots + n_k}$$
$$e_{i1} = n_i \hat{\theta}$$
$$e_{i2} = n_i (1 - \hat{\theta})$$

Then we can show that

$$\sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{(x_i - n_i \hat{\theta})^2}{n_i \hat{\theta} (1 - \hat{\theta})} = \sum_{j=1}^{2} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{(f_{ij} - e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}}.$$

Example. Determine, on the basis of the sample data shown in the following table, whether the true proportion of shoppers favoring detergent A over detergent B is the same in all three cities:

	# favoring A	# favoring B
Los Angels	232	168
San Diego	260	240
Fresno	197	263

Notice that the row sums are 400, 500, 400. Use the 0.05 level of significance.

Solution. We proceed with the four steps:

• Step 1. Set up the test

 $H_0: \theta_1 = \theta_2 = \theta_3$ vs $H_1: \theta_1, \theta_2, \theta_3$ are not all equal with level of significance $\alpha = 0.05$.

• Step 2. Decide to use test statistic $\sum_{j=1}^{2} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{(f_{ij}-e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}}$ and reject H_0 if

$$\sum_{j=1}^{2} \sum_{i=1}^{k} \frac{(f_{ij} - e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}} > \chi^2_{\alpha,k-1} = \chi^2_{0.05,2} = 5.991$$

• Step 3. Based on the data table, we obtain

$$\hat{\theta} = \frac{232 + 260 + 197}{400 + 500 + 400} = 0.53.$$

and

 $e_{11} = 400 \cdot 0.53 = 212,$ $e_{12} = 400 \cdot 0.47 = 188$ $e_{21} = 500 \cdot 0.53 = 265,$ $e_{22} = 500 \cdot 0.47 = 235$ $e_{31} = 400 \cdot 0.53 = 212,$ $e_{32} = 400 \cdot 0.47 = 188$

and then

$$\chi^{2} = \frac{(232 - 212)^{2}}{212} + \frac{(260 - 265)^{2}}{265} + \frac{(197 - 212)^{2}}{212} + \frac{(168 - 188)^{2}}{188} + \frac{(240 - 235)^{2}}{235} + \frac{(203 - 188)^{2}}{188} = 6.48$$

• Step 4. Since $\chi^2 = 6.48 > 5.991 = \chi^2_{0.05,2}$, we reject H_0 .

The method above can be easily extended to $r \times c$ table:

	# in Class 1	# in Class 2	• • •	# in Class c
Sample 1	f_{11}	f_{12}	•••	f_{1c}
Sample 2	f_{21}	f_{22}	•••	f_{2c}
÷	:	:	•••	:
Sample r	f_{r1}	f_{r2}	• • •	f_{rc}

Then we denote

$$f = \sum_{i=1}^{r} \sum_{j=1}^{c} f_{ij}, \quad f_{i\cdot} = \sum_{j=1}^{c} f_{ij}, \quad f_{\cdot j} = \sum_{i=1}^{r} f_{ij}$$
$$\widehat{\theta}_{i\cdot} = \frac{f_{i\cdot}}{f}, \quad \widehat{\theta}_{\cdot i} = \frac{f_{\cdot j}}{f}, \quad e_{ij} = \widehat{\theta}_{i\cdot} \widehat{\theta}_{\cdot j} f$$

Then we reject H_0 if

$$\sum_{j=1}^{r} \sum_{i=1}^{c} \frac{(f_{ij} - e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}} > \chi^2_{\alpha,(r-1)(c-1)}.$$

Remark. The degrees of freedom (r-1)(c-1) is the number of free parameters: we only need (r-1)(c-1) terms to fill the whole $r \times c$ matrix since row/column sums and total sum are fixed.

Example. Use the data shown in the following table to test at the 0.01 level of significance whether a person's ability in mathematics is independent of his or her interest in statistics.

	Low in Math	Average in Math	High in Math
Low in Statistics	63	42	15
Average in Statistics	58	61	31
High in Statistics	14	47	29

Solution. We proceed with the four steps:

• Step 1. Set up the test

 H_0 : ability and interests are independent vs H_1 : not independent with level of significance $\alpha = 0.01$.

• Step 2. Decide to use test statistic $\sum_{j=1}^{c} \sum_{i=1}^{r} \frac{(f_{ij}-e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}}$ and reject if

$$\sum_{j=1}^{c} \sum_{i=1}^{r} \frac{(f_{ij} - e_{ij})^2}{e_{ij}} > \chi^2_{\alpha,(r-1)(c-1)} = \chi^2_{0.01,4} = 13.277.$$

• Step 3. Based on the data table, we obtain $\hat{\theta}$, $\hat{\theta}_{i}$, $\hat{\theta}_{.j}$, f_{i} , $f_{.j}$, e_{ij} etc, and

$$\chi^2 = \frac{(63 - 45.0)^2}{45.0} + \frac{(42 - 50.0)^2}{50.0} + \dots + \frac{(29 - 18.75)^2}{18.75} = 32.14$$

• Step 4. Since $\chi^2 = 32.14 > 13.277$, we reject H_0 .

The method developed above can be used to test **Goodness of Fit**.

Example. Suppose that we want to decide on the basis of the data (observed frequencies f_i 's) shown in the following table whether the number of errors a compositor makes in setting a galley of type is a random variable having a Poisson distribution. Use level of significance 0.05.

We combine the last two rows into one row. To determine a corresponding set of expected frequencies for a random sample from a Poisson population, we first use the mean of the observed distribution to estimate the Poisson parameter λ , getting

$$\hat{\lambda} = \frac{\sum_{i=0}^{9} if_i}{\sum_{i=0}^{9} f_i} = \frac{1,341}{440} = 3.05$$

or approximately $\hat{\lambda} = 3$.

So we obtain expected frequency $e_i = 400 \times P(X = i)$, as shown in the following table.

Number of errors	Observed frequency f_i	$P(X = i)$ where $X \sim Poisson(3)$	Expected frequency e_i
0	18	0.0498	21.9
1	53	0.1494	65.7
2	103	0.224	98.6
3	107	0.224	98.6
4	82	0.168	73.9
5	46	0.1008	44.4
6	18	0.0504	22.2
7	10	0.0216	9.5
8	2	0.0081	3.6
9	1	0.0038	1.7

Recall that we combine the last two rows into one row. Then we extract the f_i and e_i columns to form a 9 × 2 matrix.

Solution. We proceed with the four steps:

• Step 1. Set up the test

 H_0 : # errors is a Poisson random variable vs H_1 : is not Poisson with level of significance $\alpha = 0.05$.

• Step 2. Decide to use test statistic $\sum_{i=0}^{8} \frac{(f_i - e_i)^2}{e_i}$ and reject if

$$\sum_{i=0}^{8} \frac{(f_i - e_i)^2}{e_i} > \chi^2_{\alpha, m-t-1} = \chi^2_{0.05, 7} = 14.067,$$

where m = 9 is the total number of terms in the sum, t = 1 is the number of independent parameters (only $\hat{\lambda}$ in this example).

• Step 3. Based on the data table, we obtain

$$\chi^2 = \frac{(18 - 21.9)^2}{21.9} + \frac{(53 - 65.7)^2}{65.7} + \dots + \frac{(3 - 5.3)^2}{5.3} = 6.83.$$

• Step 4. Since $\chi^2 = 6.83 < 14.067$, we cannot reject H_0 .