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# Computer Statistics with R

## 7. Parametric Tests



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### Info

These tutorials are likely to contain bugs and typos. In case you find any don't hesitate to *contact us!* Thanks in advance!

## 7.1. Preliminaries

Notation convention — quantiles:

- $z_\alpha = \text{qnorm}(\alpha)$ ,
- $t_\alpha^{[n]} = \text{qt}(\alpha, n)$ ,
- $\chi_{\alpha, n}^2 = \text{qchisq}(\alpha, n)$ ,
- $F_\alpha^{[n_1, n_2]} = \text{qf}(\alpha, n_1, n_2)$ .

### 7.1.1. Theory of hypothesis tests

Let  $(\mathcal{X}, \mathcal{B}, \mathcal{P} = \{p_\theta, \theta \in \Theta\})$  be an identifiable statistical space. Consider the pair  $(H_0, K)$  of hypotheses, where

$$\begin{aligned} H_0 : \theta &\in \Theta_{H_0} \quad (\text{null hypothesis}), \\ K : \theta &\in \Theta_K \quad (\text{alternative hypothesis}), \end{aligned} \tag{7.1}$$

$\Theta_{H_0} \subset \Theta$ ,  $\Theta_K \subset \Theta$ ,  $\Theta_{H_0} \cap \Theta_K = \emptyset$ ,  $\Theta_{H_0} \cup \Theta_K = \Theta$ .

**Definition 1.** A *statistical hypothesis test* is a function  $\varphi : \mathcal{X} \rightarrow \{0, 1\}$ , where 0 denotes the acceptance of the null hypothesis, and 1 — its rejection.

**Definition 2.** An *error of I kind* is a rejection of true null hypothesis.

**Definition 3.** An *error of II kind* is an acceptance of false null hypothesis.

Let us denote by  $\alpha_\varphi$  and  $\beta_\varphi$  the probability of committing, respectively, an error of I and II kind, that is

$$\begin{aligned} \alpha_\varphi &= \text{P}(\varphi = 1 | H_0), \\ \beta_\varphi &= \text{P}(\varphi = 0 | K). \end{aligned} \tag{7.2}$$

**Definition 4.** The *power function* of a test  $\varphi$  is a mapping  $M : \Theta \rightarrow [0, 1]$ :

$$M_\varphi(\theta) = \text{P}_\theta(\varphi = 1). \tag{7.3}$$

It is easily seen that  $\mathbb{E}_\theta \varphi = M_\varphi(\theta)$ .

**Definition 5.** We say that a test  $\varphi$  has *significance level of  $\alpha$* , if  $\mathbb{E}_\theta \varphi \leq \alpha$  for all  $\theta \in \Theta_{H_0}$ .

Note that in practice we often set  $\alpha = 0.05, 0.01$ , or  $0.1$ .

**Definition 6.** The *size* of a test  $\varphi$  is defined as

$$\text{size}(\varphi) := \sup_{\theta \in \Theta_{H_0}} \mathbb{E}_\theta \varphi. \tag{7.4}$$

#### 7.1.1.1. Testing statistical hypotheses in practice

Here is an algorithm for testing statistical hypotheses using computer programs such as R:

1. Specify statistical space (model).
2. Gather information on observed sample.
3. Specify a null hypothesis  $H_0$  and an alternative hypothesis  $K$ .
4. Choose appropriate test.
5. Fix significance level  $\alpha$ .
6. Calculate test statistic  $T$ .

7. Calculate  $p$ -value.
8. Make an appropriate decision: reject  $H_0$  if  $p$ -value  $< \alpha$ , and do not reject  $H_0$  otherwise.

If no computer program is available we may:

- 7'. Determine critical region  $R_\alpha$ .
- 8'. Make an appropriate decision: reject  $H_0$  if  $T \in R_\alpha$ , and do not reject  $H_0$  otherwise.

### 7.1.2. Tests for mean $\mu$

#### 7.1.2.1. One-sample $z$ -test

**Model I**  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$  i.i.d.  $N(\mu, \sigma)$ , known  $\sigma$ . Null hypothesis:  $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$ . Test statistic:

$$z = \frac{\bar{\mathbf{X}} - \mu_0}{\sigma} \sqrt{n} \stackrel{H_0}{\approx} N(0, 1). \quad (7.5)$$

R implementation: `none`.

**Model II**  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$  i.i.d. ???, large  $n$ . Null hypothesis:  $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$ . Test statistic (asymptotic):

$$z = \frac{\bar{\mathbf{X}} - \mu_0}{s_{\mathbf{X}}} \sqrt{n} \stackrel{H_0}{\approx}_{n \rightarrow \infty} N(0, 1). \quad (7.6)$$

R implementation: `t.test(..., mu=...)`.

Alternative hypothesis: Critical region:

$$\begin{array}{ll} K_1 : \mu \neq \mu_0 & R_1(\alpha) = (-\infty, -z_{1-0.5\alpha}] \cup [z_{1-0.5\alpha}, +\infty) \\ K_2 : \mu > \mu_0 & R_2(\alpha) = [z_{1-\alpha}, +\infty) \\ K_3 : \mu < \mu_0 & R_3(\alpha) = (-\infty, -z_{1-\alpha}] \end{array}$$

The type of alternative in `t.test()` is determined by `alternative="two.sided"` ( $K_1$ , default), `"greater"` ( $K_2$ ) or `"less"` ( $K_3$ ).

For example, given a numeric vector  $\mathbf{x}$  of observed sample values,  
`t.test(x, mu=1)` — tests  $H_0 : \mu = 1$  versus  $K : \mu \neq 1$ .  
`t.test(x, mu=1, alternative="less")` — tests  $H_0 : \mu = 1$  versus  $K : \mu < 1$ .

#### 7.1.2.2. One-sample $t$ -test

$\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$  i.i.d.  $N(\mu, \sigma)$ , unknown  $\sigma$ . Null hypothesis:  $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$ . Test statistic:

$$t = \frac{\bar{\mathbf{X}} - \mu_0}{s_{\mathbf{X}}} \sqrt{n} \stackrel{H_0}{\approx} t^{[n-1]}. \quad (7.7)$$

R implementation: `t.test(..., mu=...)`.

Alternative hypothesis: Critical region:

$$\begin{array}{ll} K_1 : \mu \neq \mu_0 & R_1(\alpha) = \left(-\infty, -t_{1-0.5\alpha}^{[n-1]}\right] \cup \left[t_{1-0.5\alpha}^{[n-1]}, +\infty\right) \\ K_2 : \mu > \mu_0 & R_2(\alpha) = \left[t_{1-\alpha}^{[n-1]}, +\infty\right) \\ K_3 : \mu < \mu_0 & R_3(\alpha) = \left(-\infty, -t_{1-\alpha}^{[n-1]}\right] \end{array}$$

7.1.2.3. Two-sample  $z$ -test

**Model I**  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{n_X})$  i.i.d.  $N(\mu_X, \sigma_X)$ ,  $\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_{n_Y})$  i.i.d.  $N(\mu_Y, \sigma_Y)$ , known  $\sigma_X$  and  $\sigma_Y$ . Null hypothesis:  $H_0 : \mu_X = \mu_Y$ . Test statistic:

$$z = \frac{\bar{\mathbf{X}} - \bar{\mathbf{Y}}}{\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_X^2}{n_X} + \frac{\sigma_Y^2}{n_Y}}} \stackrel{H_0}{\sim} N(0, 1). \quad (7.8)$$

R implementation: `none`.

**Model II**  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{n_X})$  i.i.d. ???,  $\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_{n_Y})$  i.i.d. ???, large  $n_X$  and  $n_Y$ . Null hypothesis:  $H_0 : \mu_X = \mu_Y$ . Test statistic (asymptotic):

$$z = \frac{\bar{\mathbf{X}} - \bar{\mathbf{Y}}}{\sqrt{\frac{s_{\mathbf{X}}^2}{n_X} + \frac{s_{\mathbf{Y}}^2}{n_Y}}} \stackrel{H_0}{\sim}_{n_X, n_Y \rightarrow \infty} N(0, 1). \quad (7.9)$$

R implementation: `t.test()`.

Alternative hypothesis: Critical region:

$$\begin{aligned} K_1 : \mu_X \neq \mu_Y & & R_1(\alpha) &= (-\infty, -z_{1-0.5\alpha}] \cup [z_{1-0.5\alpha}, +\infty) \\ K_2 : \mu_X > \mu_Y & & R_2(\alpha) &= [z_{1-\alpha}, +\infty) \\ K_3 : \mu_X < \mu_Y & & R_3(\alpha) &= (-\infty, -z_{1-\alpha}] \end{aligned}$$

7.1.2.4. Two-sample  $t$ -test

**Model I**  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{n_X})$  i.i.d.  $N(\mu_X, \sigma_X)$ ,  $\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_{n_Y})$  i.i.d.  $N(\mu_Y, \sigma_Y)$ , unknown  $\sigma_X$  and  $\sigma_Y$ , but  $\sigma_X = \sigma_Y$  (pooled variance version). Null hypothesis:  $H_0 : \mu_X = \mu_Y$ . Let

$$d = n_X + n_Y - 2.$$

Test statistic:

$$t = \frac{\bar{\mathbf{X}} - \bar{\mathbf{Y}}}{\sqrt{\frac{\hat{s}^2}{n_X} + \frac{\hat{s}^2}{n_Y}}} \stackrel{H_0}{\sim} t^{[d]}. \quad (7.10)$$

where

$$\hat{s}^2 = \frac{(n_X - 1)s_{\mathbf{X}}^2 + (n_Y - 1)s_{\mathbf{Y}}^2}{d}.$$

R implementation: `t.test(..., var.equal=T)`.

**Model II**  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{n_X})$  i.i.d.  $N(\mu_X, \sigma_X)$ ,  $\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_{n_Y})$  i.i.d.  $N(\mu_Y, \sigma_Y)$ , unknown  $\sigma_X$  and  $\sigma_Y$ . Null hypothesis:  $H_0 : \mu_X = \mu_Y$ . The Welch-Satterthwaite approximation for the degrees of freedom:

$$d = \frac{\left(\frac{s_{\mathbf{X}}^2}{n_X} + \frac{s_{\mathbf{Y}}^2}{n_Y}\right)^2}{\left(\frac{s_{\mathbf{X}}^2}{n_X}\right)^2 / (n_X - 1) + \left(\frac{s_{\mathbf{Y}}^2}{n_Y}\right)^2 / (n_Y - 1)}.$$

Test statistic (approximate):

$$t = \frac{\bar{\mathbf{X}} - \bar{\mathbf{Y}}}{\sqrt{\frac{s_{\mathbf{X}}^2}{n_X} + \frac{s_{\mathbf{Y}}^2}{n_Y}}} \stackrel{H_0}{\sim} t^{[d]}. \quad (7.11)$$

R implementation: `t.test()`.

Alternative hypothesis: Critical region:

$$K_1 : \mu_X \neq \mu_Y \quad R_1(\alpha) = \left(-\infty, -t_{1-0.5\alpha}^{[d]}\right] \cup \left[t_{1-0.5\alpha}^{[d]}, +\infty\right)$$

$$K_2 : \mu_X > \mu_Y \quad R_2(\alpha) = \left[t_{1-\alpha}^{[d]}, +\infty\right)$$

$$K_3 : \mu_X < \mu_Y \quad R_3(\alpha) = \left(-\infty, -t_{1-\alpha}^{[d]}\right]$$

For example, given two vectors of observations  $\mathbf{x}$  and  $\mathbf{y}$ ,

`t.test(x,y)` — tests  $H_0 : \mu_X = \mu_Y$  versus  $K : \mu_X \neq \mu_Y$ .

`t.test(x,y,alternative="less",var.equal=TRUE)` — tests  $H_0 : \mu_X = \mu_Y$  versus  $K : \mu_X < \mu_Y$ , assuming  $\sigma_1^X = \sigma_2^Y$ .

#### 7.1.2.5. Paired $t$ -test

$\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$  i.i.d.  $N(\mu_X, \sigma_X)$ ,  $\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_n)$  i.i.d.  $N(\mu_Y, \sigma_Y)$ , unknown  $\sigma_X$  and  $\sigma_Y$ , but observations are matched in pairs, i.e.  $(X_i, Y_i)$  are dependent for  $i = 1, 2, \dots, n$ . Null hypothesis:  $H_0 : \mu_X = \mu_Y$ . Let  $\mathbf{Z} = \mathbf{X} - \mathbf{Y}$ . Test statistic:

$$t = \frac{\bar{\mathbf{Z}} - 0}{s_{\mathbf{Z}}} \sqrt{n} \stackrel{H_0}{\sim} t^{[n-1]}. \quad (7.12)$$

R implementation: `t.test(..., paired=T)`.

Alternative hypothesis: Critical region:

$$K_1 : \mu_X \neq \mu_Y \quad R_1(\alpha) = \left(-\infty, -t_{1-0.5\alpha}^{[n-1]}\right] \cup \left[t_{1-0.5\alpha}^{[n-1]}, +\infty\right)$$

$$K_2 : \mu_X > \mu_Y \quad R_2(\alpha) = \left[t_{1-\alpha}^{[n-1]}, +\infty\right)$$

$$K_3 : \mu_X < \mu_Y \quad R_3(\alpha) = \left(-\infty, -t_{1-\alpha}^{[n-1]}\right]$$

### 7.1.3. Tests for variance $\sigma^2$

#### 7.1.3.1. One-sample test for variance

$\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$  i.i.d.  $N(\mu, \sigma)$ , unknown  $\mu$ . Null hypothesis:  $H_0 : \sigma^2 = \sigma_0^2$ . Test statistic:

$$x = \frac{(n-1)s_{\mathbf{X}}^2}{\sigma_0^2} \stackrel{H_0}{\sim} \chi_{n-1}^2. \quad (7.13)$$

R implementation: `none`.

Alternative hypothesis: Critical region:

$$K_1 : \sigma^2 \neq \sigma_0^2 \quad R_1(\alpha) = \left(0, \chi_{0.5\alpha, n-1}^2\right] \cup \left[\chi_{1-0.5\alpha, n-1}^2, +\infty\right)$$

$$K_2 : \sigma^2 > \sigma_0^2 \quad R_2(\alpha) = \left[\chi_{1-\alpha, n-1}^2, +\infty\right)$$

$$K_3 : \sigma^2 < \sigma_0^2 \quad R_3(\alpha) = \left(0, \chi_{\alpha, n-1}^2\right]$$

#### 7.1.3.2. $F$ -test

$\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{n_X})$  i.i.d.  $N(\mu_X, \sigma_X)$ ,  $\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_{n_Y})$  i.i.d.  $N(\mu_Y, \sigma_Y)$ , unknown  $\mu_X$  and  $\mu_Y$ . Null hypothesis:  $H_0 : \sigma_X^2 = \sigma_Y^2$ . Test statistic:

$$F = \frac{s_{\mathbf{X}}^2}{s_{\mathbf{Y}}^2} \stackrel{H_0}{\sim} F^{[n_1-1, n_2-2]}. \quad (7.14)$$

R implementation: `var.test()`.

Alternative hypothesis:  $K : \sigma_X^2 > \sigma_Y^2$ .  $R = \left[F_{1-\alpha}^{[n_1-1, n_2-1]}, +\infty\right)$ .

See also: Bartlett's test, Levene's test.

### 7.1.4. Tests for proportion

#### 7.1.4.1. One-sample $z$ -test

**Model I**  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$  i.i.d. Bern( $p$ ), large  $n$  ( $\geq 100$ ). Null hypothesis:  $H_0 : p = p_0$ . Test statistic (asymptotic):

$$z = \frac{\hat{p} - p_0}{\sqrt{p_0(1 - p_0)}} \sqrt{n} \stackrel{H_0}{\underset{n \rightarrow \infty}{\rightsquigarrow}} N(0, 1). \quad (7.15)$$

**Model II**  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_n)$  i.i.d. Bern( $p$ ), small  $n$ . Null hypothesis:  $H_0 : p = p_0$ . Test statistic (approximate):

$$z = 2 \left( \arcsin \sqrt{\hat{p}} - \arcsin \sqrt{p_0} \right) \sqrt{\hat{n}} \stackrel{H_0}{\rightsquigarrow} N(0, 1). \quad (7.16)$$

Alternative hypothesis:      Critical region:

$$K_1 : p \neq p_0 \quad R_1(\alpha) = (-\infty, -z_{1-0.5\alpha}] \cup [z_{1-0.5\alpha}, +\infty)$$

$$K_2 : p > p_0 \quad R_2(\alpha) = [z_{1-\alpha}, +\infty)$$

$$K_3 : p < p_0 \quad R_3(\alpha) = (-\infty, -z_{1-\alpha}]$$

[R implementation \(similar tests, more accurate\): `binom.test\(\)`, `prop.test\(\)`.](#)

#### 7.1.4.2. Two-sample $z$ -test

**Model I**  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{n_X})$  i.i.d. Bern( $p_X$ ),  $\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_{n_Y})$  i.i.d. Bern( $p_Y$ ), large  $n_X$  and  $n_Y$  ( $\geq 100$ ). Null hypothesis:  $H_0 : p_X = p_Y$ . Let  $k_X = \sum_{i=1}^{n_X} X_i$ ,  $k_Y = \sum_{i=1}^{n_Y} Y_i$ . Test statistic (asymptotic):

$$z = \frac{\hat{p}_X - \hat{p}_Y}{\sqrt{\hat{p}(1 - \hat{p})}} \sqrt{\hat{n}} \stackrel{H_0}{\underset{n_X, n_Y \rightarrow \infty}{\rightsquigarrow}} N(0, 1), \quad (7.17)$$

where  $\hat{p} = \frac{k_X + k_Y}{n_X + n_Y}$  and  $\hat{n} = \frac{n_X n_Y}{n_X + n_Y}$ .

**Model II**  $\mathbf{X} = (X_1, X_2, \dots, X_{n_X})$  i.i.d. Bern( $p_X$ ),  $\mathbf{Y} = (Y_1, Y_2, \dots, Y_{n_Y})$  i.i.d. Bern( $p_Y$ ), small  $n_X$  and  $n_Y$ . Null hypothesis:  $H_0 : p_X = p_Y$ . Let  $k_X = \sum_{i=1}^{n_X} X_i$ ,  $k_Y = \sum_{i=1}^{n_Y} Y_i$ . Test statistic (approximate):

$$z = 2 \left( \arcsin \sqrt{\hat{p}_X} - \arcsin \sqrt{\hat{p}_Y} \right) \sqrt{\hat{n}} \stackrel{H_0}{\rightsquigarrow} N(0, 1), \quad (7.18)$$

where  $\hat{n} = \frac{n_X n_Y}{n_X + n_Y}$ .

Alternative hypothesis:      Critical region:

$$K_1 : p_X \neq p_Y \quad R_1(\alpha) = (-\infty, -z_{1-0.5\alpha}] \cup [z_{1-0.5\alpha}, +\infty)$$

$$K_2 : p_X > p_Y \quad R_2(\alpha) = [z_{1-\alpha}, +\infty)$$

$$K_3 : p_X < p_Y \quad R_3(\alpha) = (-\infty, -z_{1-\alpha}]$$

[R implementation \(more accurate\): `prop.test\(\)`.](#)

## 7.2. Examples

**Ex. 7.1.** The internal pressure strength of glass bottles is an important characteristic of their quality. The bottler wants to know whether the expected pressure strength exceeds

1.20 N/mm<sup>2</sup>. From previous experience, he knows that the pressure strength is normally distributed with standard deviation of 0.07 N/mm<sup>2</sup>.

A random sample of 20 bottles is selected and the bottles are placed on a hydrostatic pressure-testing machine that increases the pressure in the bottle until it breaks. Here are the results [N/mm<sup>2</sup>]:

1.36, 1.14, 1.27, 1.15, 1.20, 1.29, 1.27, 1.18, 1.23, 1.36, 1.38, 1.37, 1.30, 1.21,  
1.33, 1.28, 1.32, 1.29, 1.33, 1.25.

Test the hypothesis of interest at significance level of  $\alpha = 0.04$ .

### Solution.

Our statistical model in this task is as follows. We are given a realization of a sample  $(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  i.i.d.  $N(\mu, \sigma)$  with unknown  $\mu$  and known  $\sigma = 0.07$ .

We shall use the one-sample  $z$ -test to verify  $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$  against  $K : \mu > \mu_0$ . This tool is not available in R, so we will perform the calculations “manually”.

The null hypothesis  $H_0$  should be rejected, if the test statistic

$$T = \frac{\bar{\mathbf{X}} - \mu_0}{\sigma} \sqrt{n}. \quad (7.19)$$

falls into the critical region (a.k.a. rejection region)  $R_\alpha = [z_{1-\alpha}, +\infty)$ , where  $z_{1-\alpha}$  denotes the  $(1 - \alpha)$ -standardized normal quantile.

Here we have:  $n = 20$ ,  $\alpha = 0.04$  and  $\mu_0 = 1.2$ .

Let us calculate the test statistic:

```
x <- c(1.36, 1.14, 1.27, 1.15, 1.2, 1.29, 1.27, 1.18, 1.23, 1.36, 1.38, 1.37,
      1.3, 1.21, 1.33, 1.28, 1.32, 1.29, 1.33, 1.25)
mu0 <- 1.2
sigma <- 0.07
(T <- (mean(x) - mu0)/sigma * sqrt(length(x)))
## [1] 4.824
```

The quantile is equal to:

```
qnorm(0.96)
## [1] 1.751
```

We note that the value of the test statistic  $T$  falls into the rejection region  $R_{0.04} = [1.7507, +\infty)$ , therefore the null hypothesis should be rejected. Thus, the expected bottle pressure strength significantly exceeds (at significance level  $\alpha = 0.04$ ) 1.2 N/mm<sup>2</sup>.

□

**Ex. 7.2.** Coffee cans in some factory are filled (at least theoretically) to a net weight of 150 g, but some variability is observed. In fact, a random sample of seven cans of this particular brand gave net weights of 142, 151, 148, 151, 145, 150, 141. Assuming normality of cans’ net weights, test whether expected value of the weight is actually 150 g, with maximal probability of making type I error equal to 0.05.

### Solution.

We are given a realization of a sample  $(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  i.i.d.  $N(\mu, \sigma)$  with two unknown parameters  $\mu$  and  $\sigma$ . Here, one-sample  $t$ -test should be used to verify the null hypothesis  $H_0 : \mu = 150$  against  $K : \mu \neq 150$ .

We fix significance level  $\alpha = 0.05$ .



```

coffee <- c(142, 151, 148, 151, 145, 150, 141)
mean(coffee) # let's check the mean weight
## [1] 146.9
t.test(coffee, mu = 150)
##
## One Sample t-test
##
## data: coffee
## t = -1.97, df = 6, p-value = 0.0963
## alternative hypothesis: true mean is not equal to 150
## 95 percent confidence interval:
## 143.0 150.8
## sample estimates:
## mean of x
## 146.9

```

The value of the test statistic is  $T = -1.97$ . We compare the  $p$ -value = 0.0963 to the assumed significance level  $\alpha = 0.05$ . As  $p$ -value  $> \alpha$ , therefore we do not reject  $H_0$ . Thus, the expected net weight does not differ significantly (at  $\alpha = 0,05$ ) from 150 g.

□

**Ex. 7.3.** 7 randomly selected academic teachers and 15 office workers were asked about for how many years have they been employed at WUT. The following results were obtained:

Teachers	14, 17, 7, 33, 2, 24, 26, 22, 12
Office workers	13, 15, 3, 2, 25, 4, 1, 18, 6, 9, 20, 11, 5, 1, 7

It is assumed that both distributions are normal. Verify a hypothesis ( $\alpha = 0,05$ ) that the average seniority of the teachers is significantly greater than that of the office workers.

### Solution.

We are given two independent random samples:  $(X_1, \dots, X_{n_1})$  i.i.d.  $N(\mu_1, \sigma_1)$ , and  $(Y_1, \dots, Y_{n_2})$  i.i.d.  $N(\mu_2, \sigma_2)$ .

We shall verify  $H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$  against  $K : \mu_1 > \mu_2$  using two-sample  $t$ -test at significance level  $\alpha = 0.05$ . As the  $t$ -test has two variants, first we check whether the sample variances are equal. The  $F$ -test verifies  $H'_0 : \sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2$  against  $K' : \sigma_1^2 \neq \sigma_2^2$ :

```

academ <- c(14, 17, 7, 33, 2, 24, 26, 22, 12)
office <- c(13, 15, 3, 2, 25, 4, 1, 18, 6, 9, 20, 11, 5, 1, 7)
var.test(academ, office)
##
## F test to compare two variances
##
## data: academ and office
## F = 1.725, num df = 8, denom df = 14, p-value = 0.3557
## alternative hypothesis: true ratio of variances is not equal to 1
## 95 percent confidence interval:
## 0.5251 7.1239
## sample estimates:
## ratio of variances
## 1.725

```

Therefore, we may assume that  $\sigma_1^2 = \sigma_2^2$ , because  $p$ -value = ...  $> \alpha$ .

**Note**

In research reports, we should always also provide the reader with the value of test statistic  $F = \dots$

Let us now perform the  $t$ -test:

```
t.test(academ, office, alternative = "greater", var.equal = T)
##
## Two Sample t-test
##
## data:  academ and office
## t = 2.294, df = 22, p-value = 0.01587
## alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is greater than 0
## 95 percent confidence interval:
##  2.039      Inf
## sample estimates:
## mean of x mean of y
##   17.444    9.333
```

Hence, the average seniority of the academic teachers is significantly ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ) greater than the seniority of the office workers, because  $p$ -value = ...  $< \alpha$  (with test statistic  $t = \dots$ ).

□

**Ex. 7.4.** A memory test was performed on a group of 10 children (a pre-test). After a few months, during which these children were subjected to some regular development activities, the test was performed once again (a post-test). Assuming normality of the results and the significance level of 1%, determine whether the exercises significantly improved their memory skills.

Child ID	1,	2,	3,	4,	5,	6,	7,	8,	9,	10.
Pre-test	27,	21,	34,	24,	30,	27,	33,	31,	22,	27.
Post-test	29,	32,	29,	27,	31,	26,	35,	30,	29,	28.

**Solution.**

This time the pre- and post-test results  $X_1, \dots, X_{10}$  are  $Y_1, \dots, Y_{10}$  *pairwise dependent*.

```
pre <- c(27, 21, 34, 24, 30, 27, 33, 31, 22, 27)
post <- c(29, 32, 29, 27, 31, 26, 35, 30, 29, 28)
```

We have  $(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  i.i.d.  $N(\mu_1, \sigma_1)$ , and  $(Y_1, \dots, Y_n)$  i.i.d.  $N(\mu_2, \sigma_2)$  with unknown expectations and variances. The paired  $t$ -test shall be used to verify  $H_0 : \mu_1 = \mu_2$  against  $K : \mu_1 < \mu_2$  (improvement?).

```
t.test(pre, post, alternative = "less", paired = T)
##
## Paired t-test
##
## data:  pre and post
## t = -1.43, df = 9, p-value = 0.09322
## alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is less than 0
## 95 percent confidence interval:
##   -Inf 0.5634
## sample estimates:
## mean of the differences
##                   -2
```

As the  $p$ -value = ...  $> \alpha = 0.01$ , we do not reject  $H_0$ . The “development” activities did not significantly improve their memory skills.

□

**Ex. 7.5.** If some industrial device works properly, the amount of faulty items it outputs does not exceed 4%. If the number is greater than 4%, one should adjust the production process. A quality controller picked up a random sample of 200 items and found 14 faulty products. Shall the process be adjusted? Assume significance level of 0.05.

**Solution.**

We are given a random sample  $(X_1, \dots, X_n)$  i.i.d.  $\text{Bern}(p)$ . We verify  $H_0 : p = 0.04$  against  $K > 0.04$  using one-sample test for proportion implemented in the `binom.test()` function ( $\alpha = 0.05$ ).

```
binom.test(14, 200, p = 0.04, alternative = "greater")
##
## Exact binomial test
##
## data: 14 and 200
## number of successes = 14, number of trials = 200, p-value = 0.03121
## alternative hypothesis: true probability of success is greater than 0.04
## 95 percent confidence interval:
## 0.04281 1.00000
## sample estimates:
## probability of success
## 0.07
```

The null hypothesis therefore shall be rejected at  $\alpha = 0.05$ . The production process should be adjusted.

Note the result given by another function (however, the `binom.test()` procedure is preferred, because it has greater power):

```
prop.test(14, 200, p = 0.04, alternative = "greater")
##
## 1-sample proportions test with continuity correction
##
## data: 14 out of 200, null probability 0.04
## X-squared = 3.939, df = 1, p-value = 0.02359
## alternative hypothesis: true p is greater than 0.04
## 95 percent confidence interval:
## 0.04372 1.00000
## sample estimates:
## p
## 0.07
```

□

**Ex. 7.6.** 455 of 700 M.Sc. students and 517 of 1320 B.Sc. students work for money during their studies. Do the proportions differ significantly?

**Solution.**

Here we have two independent samples  $(X_1, \dots, X_{n_1})$  i.i.d.  $\text{Bern}(p_1)$ , and  $(Y_1, \dots, Y_{n_2})$  i.i.d.  $\text{Bern}(p_2)$ . We verify  $H_0 : p_1 = p_2$  versus  $K : p_1 \neq p_2$  with the `prop.test()` function.

As significance level is not given, we may set e.g.  $\alpha = 0.05$ .

```
prop.test(c(455, 517), c(700, 1320))
```

```
##  
## 2-sample test for equality of proportions with continuity  
## correction  
##  
## data: c(455, 517) out of c(700, 1320)  
## X-squared = 121.2, df = 1, p-value < 2.2e-16  
## alternative hypothesis: two.sided  
## 95 percent confidence interval:  
## 0.2132 0.3035  
## sample estimates:  
## prop 1 prop 2  
## 0.6500 0.3917
```

Obviously, we conclude that the proportions of students working for money differ significantly between the two groups.

□