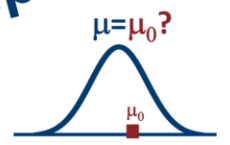
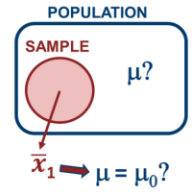


# The one sample t-test

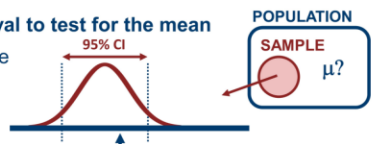
To see if the mean is what we think



**Testing a population mean**  
 We want to know if the population mean is a certain value,  $\mu_0$ . We can't measure the population. We take a random sample. We calculate the sample mean.

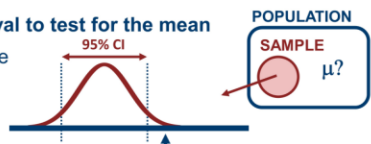


**Using a confidence interval to test for the mean**  
 We compare the confidence interval (i.e., CI) to the hypothesized population mean,  $\mu_0$ .



Reasonable probability that  $\mu = \mu_0$   
 Watch our confidence interval video for more about calculating CIs and what they represent.

**Using a confidence interval to test for the mean**  
 We compare the confidence interval (i.e., CI) to the hypothesized population mean,  $\mu_0$ .



low probability that  $\mu = \mu_0$   
 Watch our confidence interval video for more about calculating CIs and what they represent.

## The two-tailed t test formal procedure

- Create a null hypothesis and alternative hypothesis:  
 $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$   
 $H_A: \mu \neq \mu_0$
- Calculate  $t_{calc} = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{SE}$
- Compare  $t_{calc}$  to various  $t_{crit}$  values (i.e., widths of CIs).
- Determine probability, **p value**, of seeing  $t_{calc}$  as extreme as we do.
- Decide to "reject  $H_0$ " or "fail to reject  $H_0$ " based on the p value.  
 $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$  consistent with non-small p values.  
 $H_A: \mu \neq \mu_0$  would give us small p values.

## t test for 16 values (df=15)

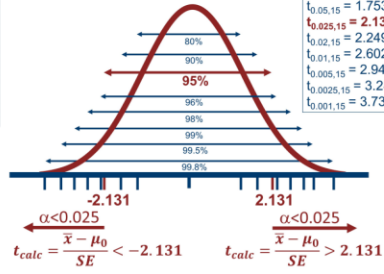
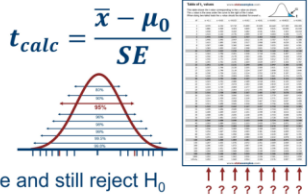


Table of t values
$t_{0.1,15} = 1.341$
$t_{0.05,15} = 1.753$
$t_{0.025,15} = 2.131$
$t_{0.02,15} = 2.249$
$t_{0.01,15} = 2.602$
$t_{0.005,15} = 2.947$
$t_{0.0025,15} = 3.286$
$t_{0.001,15} = 3.733$

## The p value

Context:  $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$  and  $H_A: \mu \neq \mu_0$   
 $t_{calc} = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{SE}$   
 Determine probability, **p value**, of seeing  $t_{calc}$  as extreme as we do.



**The p value**  
**Conceptual definition:** The p value is the probability of seeing the sample data you do, if the null hypothesis is correct.  
 is equivalent to ...  
 The p value is the probability of obtaining the  $t_{calc}$  statistic (or more extreme) that you did, if the null hypothesis is correct.

**The p value of a test is the probability that the value you see could arise due to sampling error if  $H_0$  is true.**  
 If p value small ( $\sim 0.05$ ), reject  $H_0$   
 If p value not small, fail to reject  $H_0$

**THE MOST USEFUL CONCEPT IN STATISTICS**

- The t test practical procedure**
- Create a null hypothesis and alternative hypothesis:  
 $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$  and  $H_A: \mu \neq \mu_0$
  - Calculate  $t_{calc}$  and compare  $t_{calc}$  to various  $t_{crit}$  values.  
 $t_{calc} = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{SE}$
  - Determine the p value - e.g.,  $t_{calc} = 2.8$  for  $df=15$ .  
 Use table:  $t_{0.01,15} = 2.602 < 2.8 < 2.947 = t_{0.005,15}$  gives  $0.02 > p > 0.01$   
 Use computer: calculation gives  $p = 0.013$
  - Use the small p value to "reject  $H_0$ "  
 $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$  not consistent with  $p = 0.013 < 0.05$ .  
 $H_A: \mu \neq \mu_0$  is consistent with  $p = 0.013 < 0.05$ .

**Caution about one vs two-tailed tests**  
 Doing a one-tailed test allows you to reject  $H_0$  easier (i.e., less difference between  $\bar{x}$  and  $\mu_0$ ), so you must be careful.  
 Only do a one-tailed test under 2 conditions:  
 1. You only care about one direction  
 2. You have an *a priori* reason to test in only one direction  
 You **CANNOT** look at data to choose the direction.  
 This leads to increased type I errors (i.e., reject a true  $H_0$ )

**One vs two-tailed tests**  
 The one-sample t test can also be "one-tailed"  
 $H_0: \mu \geq \mu_0$   
 $H_A: \mu < \mu_0$   
 $t_{calc} = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{SE}$   
 $\alpha < 0.05$

**One vs two-tailed tests**  
 The one-sample t test can also be "one-tailed"  
 $H_0: \mu \leq \mu_0$   
 $H_A: \mu > \mu_0$   
 $t_{calc} = \frac{\bar{x} - \mu_0}{SE}$   
 $\alpha < 0.05$