

## Understanding Parameters and Statistics

A common source of confusion in statistics lies in the vocabulary used to describe certain numbers. A frequent occurrence of this is when students see the words parameter and statistic.

The key thing to know is that both parameters and statistics are just numbers that describe some aspect of a population or sample.

When we refer to a number that describes a population, we use the word parameter and when we refer to a number that describes a sample from a population, we use the word statistic.

A parameter is a number that describes some characteristic of a population. The four most commonly-used parameters are listed below:

- $\mu$ : Population mean
- $\sigma^2$ : Population variance
- $\sigma$ : Population standard deviation
- $p$ : Population proportion

A statistic is a number that describes some characteristic of a sample. The four most commonly-used statistics are listed below:

- $\bar{x}$ : Sample mean
- $s^2$ : Sample variance
- $s$ : Sample standard deviation
- $\hat{p}$ : Sample proportion

If you are confused as to whether a symbol is for a population or a sample, ask yourself if it is a Greek or English letter. If it is a Greek letter, it is usually a parameter and if it is an English letter, it is usually a statistic.

**Memory Tip:** To remember the difference between a parameter and a statistic, think this way. Both parameter and population start with the letter **P**. Likewise, both statistic and sample start with the letter **S**. So when you see the word parameter, think population and when you see the word statistic, think sample.

**Note:** The sample mean, sample proportion, sample variance and sample standard deviation are all considered to be good or unbiased estimators of a population.

This is both an important and powerful concept that forms the basis of statistics. It means that we do not need to sample every person in a population. In addition,

## Confidence and Significance Levels and Alpha

Statistics' students are often confused by the terms confidence level, significance level and alpha. What they don't realize is that all three are interrelated and if you know just one of these numbers, you are able to figure out the other two. The following table shows the relationship between confidence and significance levels.

### **Confidence Level + Significance Level = 1**

.90	+	.10	= 1
.95	+	.05	= 1
.99	+	.01	= 1

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The significance level (level of significance) is also called alpha. It is represented by the lowercase Greek letter  $\alpha$  (alpha). Observe the following relationship:

$$\text{significance level} = \text{level of significance} = \text{alpha} = \alpha$$

You can see that there is no difference between the significance level and alpha. Once you understand this relationship, statistics becomes much less daunting.

When textbooks want you to test a claim at the 95% confidence level, they are in-directly telling you that the significance level is 5%. And if the significance level is 5%, that means  $\alpha = .05$  because we always write alpha as a decimal.

Likewise, if a problem says to test a claim at  $\alpha = .01$ , it is indirectly telling you to test the claim at the 99% confidence level which implies a significance level of 1%.

The three most commonly used confidence levels are 90%, 95% & 99%. On rare occasion, other confidence levels are used. If no confidence level is given, most textbooks want you to assume a 95% confidence level.

**Notes:** Confidence levels are used both in hypothesis testing and when we create confidence intervals. In general, the higher our level of confidence, the wider our intervals will become. Likewise, the lower our level of confidence, the narrower our intervals will be.

When creating confidence intervals, books will have you find  $\alpha/2$ . It is important to realize that this is not a number that you calculate. What you will be doing is using either the z or t-tables to find the z or t-score that corresponds to a given area under the curve.

# How to Perform a Hypothesis Test

## (Using the Traditional Method)

1. Thoroughly read the problem and underline all of the important information. As you read, look for key words and phrases such as: ***claim, greater than, less than or does not equal***. If you are testing a claim about a mean, see if the problem gives you the population standard deviation or sample standard deviation.
2. Write down all of the important information from the problem. Make sure to include all of the statistics from the problem as well as the significance level.
3. Determine the null and alternative hypothesis and write them down. Remember that the alternative hypothesis determines if it is a one or two-tailed test. Lastly, remember that the null hypothesis always has an equals sign.
4. Determine if you will perform a one or two-tailed test. If it is a one-tailed test, decide if it is right-tailed or left-tailed.
5. Draw a picture and note the following information: the confidence and significance levels, the accept null and reject null regions and the critical values that separate the two regions. (Critical values are also known as critical numbers).
6. Write down the appropriate formula for calculating the test statistic.  
*or calculator function*
7. Calculate the value of the test statistic and mark this number on your picture.
8. Mark on your picture which region (***accept or reject null***) your test statistic falls into and then determine if you accept or reject the null hypothesis.
9. State your conclusion using the exact same wording as found in your textbook or as provided by your instructor.

**Notes:** We always test the null hypothesis. We never test the alternative hypothesis. Sometimes the claim becomes the alternative hypothesis and at other times it becomes the null hypothesis. Remember that you look up your critical values but you calculate your test statistic (***obtained value***).

This handout uses the phrase "accept null" instead of "do not reject null" or "fail to reject null." While this makes it easier for students to understand, it is not exactly correct. We haven't proven that the null hypothesis is true, only that it is not false. This is a subtle but important distinction.

This is similar to when someone is put on trial. If a jury returns a not guilty verdict, it has not said that the person is innocent; only that there is not enough evidence to find him or her guilty.