Characteristics of hypotnesis: Hypothesis induce position (i) Hypothesis should be clear and precise. If the hypothesis is not clear and precise, the inferences drawn on its basis cannot be taken as reliable.

- (ii) Hypothesis should be capable of being tested. In a swamp of untestable hypotheses, many
- a time the research programmes have bogged down. Some prior study may be done by researcher in order to make hypothesis a testable one. A hypothesis "is testable if other deductions can be made from it which, in turn, can be confirmed or disproved by observation." (iii) Hypothesis should state relationship between variables, if it happens to be a relational
- (iv) Hypothesis should be limited in scope and must be specific. A researcher must remember
- that narrower hypotheses are generally more testable and he should develop such hypotheses.
- (v) Hypothesis should be stated as far as possible in most simple terms so that the same is easily understandable by all concerned. But one must remember that simplicity of hypothesis has nothing to do with its significance.
- (vi) Hypothesis should be consistent with most known facts i.e., it must be consistent with a substantial body of established facts. In other words, it should be one which judges accept as being the most likely.
- (vii) Hypothesis should be amenable to testing within a reasonable time. One should not use even an excellent hypothesis, if the same cannot be tested in reasonable time for one cannot spend a life-time collecting data to test it.
- (viii) Hypothesis must explain the facts that gave rise to the need for explanation. This means that by using the hypothesis plus other known and accepted generalizations, one should be able to deduce the original problem condition. Thus hypothesis must actually explain what it claims to explain; it should have empirical reference.

## **BASIC CONCEPTS CONCERNING TESTING OF HYPOTHESES**

Basic concepts in the context of testing of hypotheses need to be explained.

(a) Null hypothesis and alternative hypothesis: In the context of statistical analysis, we often talk about null hypothesis and alternative hypothesis. If we are to compare method A with method Babout its superiority and if we proceed on the assumption that both methods are equally good, then this assumption is termed as the null hypothesis. As against this, we may think that the method A is superior or the method B is inferior, we are then stating what is termed as alternative hypothesis. The null hypothesis is generally symbolized as  $H_0$  and the alternative hypothesis as  $H_a$ . Suppose we want

to test the hypothesis that the population mean ( $\mu$ ) is equal to the hypothesised mean ( $\mu_{H_0}$ ) = 100.

Then we would say that the null hypothesis is that the population mean is equal to the hypothesised mean 100 and symbolically we can express as:

$$H_0: \mu = \mu_{H_0} = 100$$

<sup>1</sup> C. William Emory, Business Research Methods, p. 33.

186

Research Methodology

If our sample results do not support this null hypothesis, we should conclude that something  $e_{l_{ge}}$  is true. What we conclude rejecting the null hypothesis is known as alternative hypothesis. In  $o_{ther}$  words, the set of alternatives to the null hypothesis is referred to as the alternative hypothesis. If  $W_{e}$  accept  $H_0$ , then we are rejecting  $H_a$  and if we reject  $H_0$ , then we are accepting  $H_a = 100$ , we may consider three possible alternative hypotheses as follows\*:

-			0	
1	h	0	ч	
1 a	UI		I	

Alternative hypothesis	To be read as follows
$H_a: \mu \neq \mu_{H_0}$	(The alternative hypothesis is that the population mean is not equal to 100 i.e., it may be more or less than 100)
$H_a: \mu > \mu_{H_0}$	(The alternative hypothesis is that the population mean is greater than 100)
$H_a: \mu < \mu_{H_0}$	(The alternative hypothesis is that the population mean is less than 100)

The null hypothesis and the alternative hypothesis are chosen before the sample is drawn (the researcher must avoid the error of deriving hypotheses from the data that he collects and then testing the hypotheses from the same data). In the choice of null hypothesis, the following considerations are usually kept in view:

- (a) Alternative hypothesis is usually the one which one wishes to prove and the null hypothesis is the one which one wishes to disprove. Thus, a null hypothesis represents the hypothesis we are trying to reject, and alternative hypothesis represents all other possibilities.
- (b) If the rejection of a certain hypothesis when it is actually true involves great risk, it is taken as null hypothesis because then the probability of rejecting it when it is true is  $\alpha$  (the level of significance) which is chosen very small.
- (c) Null hypothesis should always be specific hypothesis i.e., it should not state about or approximately a certain value.

Generally, in hypothesis testing we proceed on the basis of null hypothesis, keeping the alternative hypothesis in view. Why so? The answer is that on the assumption that null hypothesis is true, one can assign the probabilities to different possible sample results, but this cannot be done if we proceed with the alternative hypothesis. Hence the use of null hypothesis (at times also known as statistical hypothesis) is quite frequent.

(b) The level of significance: This is a very important concept in the context of hypothesis testing. It is always some percentage (usually 5%) which should be chosen wit great care, thought and reason. In case we take the significance level at 5 per cent, then this implies that  $H_0$  will be rejected

If a hypothesis is of the type  $\mu = \mu_{H_0}$ , then we call such a hypothesis as simple (or specific) hypothesis but if it is of the type  $\mu \neq \mu_{H_0}$  or  $\mu > \mu_{H_0}$  or  $\mu < \mu_{H_0}$ , then we call it a composite (or nonspecific) hypothesis.

ř.

192

(vi) Comparing the probability: Yet another step consists in comparing the probability thus calculated probability is equal to the calc (vi) Comparing the probability: Yet another step consists in comparing the probability use calculated with the specified value for  $\alpha$ , the significance level. If the calculated probability is equal to the construction of the calculated test, then the calculated test, then the calculated test. with the specified value for  $\alpha$ , the significance level. If the calculated robability is equal to  $\alpha$  smaller than the  $\alpha$  value in case of one-tailed test (and  $\alpha/2$  in case of two-tailed test), then reject the null hypothesis (i smaller than the  $\alpha$  value in case of one-tailed test (and  $\alpha/2$  in case of calculated probability is greated the null hypothesis (i.e., accept the alternative hypothesis), but if the calculated probability is greated the null hypothesis (i.e., accept the alternative hypothesis) arisk of (at most the level of significant the null hypothesis). then accept the null hypothesis. In case we reject  $H_0$  we run a risk of (at most the level of significance) committing an arrow of T committing an error of Type I, but if we accept  $H_0$ , then we run a row of the size of which cannot be specified as lower of Type I, but if we accept  $H_0$ , then we run some risk (the size of which cannot be specified as lower of Type I). be specified as long as the  $H_0$  happens to be vague rather than specific) of committing an error of Type II

# FLOW DIAGRAM FOR HYPOTHESIS TESTING

The above stated general procedure for hypothesis testing can also be depicted in the from of a  $f_{low}$ . chart for better understanding as shown in Fig. 9.4:3



### FLOW DIAGRAM FOR HYPOTHESIS TESTING

Fig. 9.4

<sup>3</sup>Based on the flow diagram in William A. Chance's Statistical Methods for Decision Making, Richard D. Irwin NC. Illinois, 1969, p.48.