### Chapter 400

# **One-Sample T-Tests**

# Introduction

The one-sample *t*-test is used to test whether the mean of a population is greater than, less than, or not equal to a specific value. Because the *t* distribution is used to calculate critical values for the test, this test is often called the one-sample *t*-test. The *t*-test assumes that the population standard deviation is unknown and will be estimated by the data.

When the data are differences between paired values, this test is known as the *paired t-test*.

### Other PASS Procedures for Testing One Mean or Median

Procedures in **PASS** are primarily built upon the testing methods, test statistic, and test assumptions that will be used when the analysis of the data is performed. You should check to identify that the test procedure described below in the Test Procedure section matches your intended procedure. If your assumptions or testing method are different, you may wish to use one of the other one-sample procedures available in **PASS**-the One-Sample Z-Tests and the nonparametric Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test procedures. The methods, statistics, and assumptions for those procedures are described in the associated chapters.

If you wish to show that the mean of a population is larger (or smaller) than a reference value by a specified amount, you should use one of the clinical superiority procedures for comparing means. Non-inferiority, equivalence, and confidence interval procedures are also available.

# **The Statistical Hypotheses**

In the usual *t*-test setting, the null  $(H_0)$  and alternative  $(H_1)$  hypotheses for two-sided tests are defined as

$$H_0: \mu = \mu_0$$
 versus  $H_1: \mu \neq \mu_0$ .

Rejecting  $H_0$  implies that the mean is not equal to the value  $\mu_0$ . The hypotheses for one-sided upper-tail tests are

$$H_0: \mu \leq \mu_0$$
 versus  $H_1: \mu > \mu_0$ .

Rejecting  $H_0$  implies that the mean is larger than the value  $\mu_0$ . This test is called an *upper-tail test* because  $H_0$  is rejected in samples in which the sample mean is larger than  $\mu_0$ .

The *lower-tail test* is

$$H_0: \mu \ge \mu_0$$
 versus  $H_1: \mu < \mu_0$ .

It will be convenient to adopt the following specialize notation for the discussion of these tests.

<u>Parameter</u>	PASS Input/Output	Interpretation
μ	μ	<i>Population mean</i> . If the data are paired differences, this is the mean of those differences. This parameter will be estimated by the study.
$\mu_1$	μ1	<i>Actual population mean at which power is calculated</i> . This is the assumed population mean used in all calculations.
μ <sub>0</sub>	μ0	<i>Reference value.</i> Usually, this is the mean of a reference population. If the data are paired differences, this is the hypothesized value of the mean difference.
δ	δ	<i>Population difference</i> . This is the value of $\mu - \mu_0$ , the difference between the population mean and the reference value. This parameter will be estimated by the study.
$\delta_1$	δ1	Actual difference at which power is calculated. This is the value of $\mu_1 - \mu_0$ , the assumed difference between the mean and the reference value for power calculations.

# **Test Procedure**

- 1. **Find the critical value**. Assume that the true mean is  $\mu_0$ . Choose a value  $T_\alpha$  so that the probability of rejecting  $H_0$  when  $H_0$  is true is equal to a specified value called  $\alpha$ . Using the *t* distribution, select  $T_\alpha$  so that  $Pr(t > T_\alpha) = \alpha$ . This value is found using a *t* probability table or a computer program (like **PASS**).
- 2. Select a sample of *n* items from the population and compute the *t* statistic. Call this value *T*. If  $T > T_{\alpha}$  reject the null hypothesis that the mean equals  $\mu_0$  in favor of an alternative hypothesis that the mean is greater than  $\mu_0$ .

Following is a specific example. Suppose we want to test the hypothesis that a variable, *X*, has a mean of 100 versus the alternative hypothesis that the mean is greater than 100. Suppose that previous studies have shown that the standard deviation,  $\sigma$ , is 40. A random sample of 100 individuals is used.

We first compute the critical value,  $T_{\alpha}$ . The value of  $T_{\alpha}$  that yields  $\alpha = 0.05$  is 106.6. If the mean computed from a sample is greater than 106.6, reject the hypothesis that the mean is 100. Otherwise, do not reject the hypothesis. We call the region greater than 106.6 the *Rejection Region* and values less than or equal to 106.6 the *Acceptance Region* of the significance test.

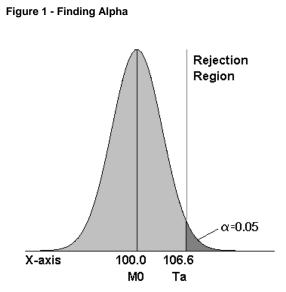
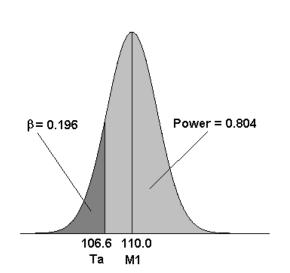


Figure 2 - Finding Power

Now suppose that you want to compute the *power* of this testing procedure. In order to compute the power, we must specify an alternative value for the mean. We decide to compute the power if the true mean were 110. Figure 2 shows how to compute the power in this case.

The *power* is the probability of rejecting  $H_0$  when the true mean is 110. Since we reject  $H_0$  when the calculated mean is greater than 106.6, the probability of a Type-II error (called  $\beta$ ) is given by the dark, shaded area of the second graph. This value is 0.196. The power is equal to  $1 - \beta$  or 0.804.

Note that there are six parameters that may be varied in this situation: two means, standard deviation, alpha, power, and the sample size.



# **Assumptions for One-Sample Tests**

This section describes the assumptions that are made when you use one of the one-sample tests. The key assumption relates to normality or non-normality of the data. One of the reasons for the popularity of the *t*-test is its robustness in the face of assumption violation. However, if an assumption is not met even approximately, the significance levels and the power of the *t*-test are invalidated. Unfortunately, in practice it often happens that several assumptions are not met. This makes matters even worse! Hence, take the steps to check the assumptions before you make important decisions based on these tests.

### **One-Sample Z-Test Assumptions**

The assumptions of the one-sample *z*-test are:

- 1. The data are continuous (not discrete).
- 2. The data follow the normal probability distribution.
- 3. The sample is a simple random sample from its population. Each individual in the population has an equal probability of being selected in the sample.
- 4. The population standard deviation is known.

### **One-Sample T-Test Assumptions**

The assumptions of the one-sample *t*-test are:

- 1. The data are continuous (not discrete).
- 2. The data follow the normal probability distribution.
- 3. The sample is a simple random sample from its population. Each individual in the population has an equal probability of being selected in the sample.

#### **Paired T-Test Assumptions**

The assumptions of the paired *t*-test are:

- 1. The data are continuous (not discrete).
- 2. The data, i.e., the differences for the matched pairs, follow a normal probability distribution.
- 3. The sample of pairs is a simple random sample from its population. Each individual in the population has an equal probability of being selected in the sample.

#### Wilcoxon Signed-Rank Test Assumptions

The assumptions of the Wilcoxon signed-rank test are as follows:

- 1. The data are continuous (not discrete).
- 2. The distribution is symmetric.
- 3. The data are mutually independent.
- 4. The data have the same median.
- 5. The measurement scale is at least interval.

### Limitations

There are few limitations when using these tests. Sample sizes may range from a few to several hundred. If your data are discrete with at least five unique values, you can often ignore the continuous variable assumption. Perhaps the greatest restriction is that your data come from a random sample of the population. If you do not have a random sample, your significance levels will probably be incorrect.

# **One-Sample T-Test Statistic**

The one-sample *t*-test assumes that the data are a simple random sample from a population of normally distributed values that all have the same mean and variance. This assumption implies that the data are continuous, and their distribution is symmetric. The calculation of the *t*-test proceeds as follows

$$t_{n-1} = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu_0}{s/\sqrt{n}}$$

where

$$\bar{X} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} X_i}{n},$$

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n} (X_i - \bar{X})^2}{n-1}},$$

and  $\mu_0$  is the value of the mean hypothesized by the null hypothesis.

The significance of the test statistic is determined by computing the p-value. If this p-value is less than a specified level (usually 0.05), the hypothesis is rejected. Otherwise, no conclusion can be reached.

# **Population Size**

This is the number of subjects in the population. Usually, you assume that samples are drawn from a very large (infinite) population. Occasionally, however, situations arise in which the population of interest is of limited size. In these cases, appropriate adjustments must be made.

When a finite population size is specified, the standard deviation is reduced according to the formula:

$$\sigma_1^2 = \left(1 - \frac{n}{N}\right)\sigma^2$$

where *n* is the sample size, *N* is the population size,  $\sigma$  is the original standard deviation, and  $\sigma_1$  is the new standard deviation.

The quantity *n*/*N* is often called the sampling fraction. The quantity  $\left(1 - \frac{n}{N}\right)$  is called the *finite population correction factor*.

# Power Calculation for the One-Sample T-Test

When the standard deviation is unknown, the power is calculated as follows for a directional alternative (one-tailed test) in which  $\mu_1 > \mu_0$ .

- 1. Find  $t_{\alpha}$  such that  $1 T_{df}(t_{\alpha}) = \alpha$ , where  $T_{df}(t_{\alpha})$  is the area under a central-*t* curve to the left of *x* and df = n 1.
- 2. Calculate:  $X_1 = \mu_0 + t_\alpha \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$ .
- 3. Calculate the noncentrality parameter:  $\lambda = \frac{\mu_1 \mu_0}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{\pi}}} = \frac{\delta_1}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{\pi}}}$
- 4. Calculate:  $t_1 = \frac{X_1 \mu_1}{\frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}} + \lambda$ .
- 5. Power =  $1 T'_{df,\lambda}(t_1)$ , where  $T'_{df,\lambda}(x)$  is the area to the left of *x* under a noncentral-*t* curve with degrees of freedom *df* and noncentrality parameter  $\lambda$ .

# Example 1 – Power after a Study

This example will cover the situation in which you are calculating the power of a *t*-test on data that have already been collected and analyzed. For example, you might be playing the role of a reviewer, looking at the power of a *t*-test from a study you are reviewing. In this case, you would not vary the means, standard deviation, or sample size since they are given by the experiment. Instead, you investigate the power of the significance tests. You might look at the impact of different alpha values on the power.

Suppose an experiment involving 100 individuals yields the following summary statistics:

Hypothesized mean (µ0)	100.0
Sample mean (µ1)	110.0
Sample standard deviation	40.0
Sample size	100

Given the above data, analyze the power of a *t*-test which tests the hypothesis that the population mean is 100 versus the alternative hypothesis that the population mean is 110. Consider the power at significance levels 0.01, 0.05, 0.10 and sample sizes 20 to 120 by 20.

Note that we have set  $\mu$ 1 equal to the sample mean. In this case, we are studying the power of the *t*-test for a mean difference the size of that found in the experimental data.

### Setup

If the procedure window is not already open, use the PASS Home window to open it. The parameters for this example are listed below and are stored in the **Example 1** settings file. To load these settings to the procedure window, click **Open Example Settings File** in the Help Center or File menu.

Design Tab

Solve For	Power
Alternative Hypothesis	Two-Sided (H1: μ ≠ μ0)
Population Size	Infinite
Alpha	0.01 0.05 0.10
N (Sample Size)	20 to 120 by 20
μ0 (Null or Baseline Mean)	100
µ1 (Actual Mean)	110
$\sigma$ (Standard Deviation)	40

### Output

Click the Calculate button to perform the calculations and generate the following output.

#### **Numeric Reports**

Numeric Results		

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Power	Sample Size N	Null µ0	Actual µ1	Difference μ1 - μ0	Standard Deviation σ	Effect Size	Alpha
0.06051	20	100	110	10	40	0.25	0.01
0.14435	40	100	110	10	40	0.25	0.01
0.24401	60	100	110	10	40	0.25	0.01
0.34953	80	100	110	10	40	0.25	0.01
0.45316	100	100	110	10	40	0.25	0.01
0.54958	120	100	110	10	40	0.25	0.01
0.18590	20	100	110	10	40	0.25	0.05
0.33831	40	100	110	10	40	0.25	0.05
0.47811	60	100	110	10	40	0.25	0.05
0.59828	80	100	110	10	40	0.25	0.05
0.69698	100	100	110	10	40	0.25	0.05
0.77532	120	100	110	10	40	0.25	0.05
0.28873	20	100	110	10	40	0.25	0.10
0.46435	40	100	110	10	40	0.25	0.10
0.60636	60	100	110	10	40	0.25	0.10
0.71639	80	100	110	10	40	0.25	0.10
0.79900	100	100	110	10	40	0.25	0.10
0.85952	120	100	110	10	40	0.25	0.10

Power The probability of rejecting a false null hypothesis when the alternative hypothesis is true.

N The size of the sample drawn from the population.

 $\mu 0$  The value of the population mean under the null hypothesis.

μ1 The actual value of the population mean at which power and sample size are calculated.

 $\mu 1 - \mu 0$  The difference between the actual and null means.

σ The standard deviation of the population. It measures the variability in the population.

Effect Size The relative magnitude of the effect. Effect Size =  $|\mu 1 - \mu 0|/\sigma$ .

Alpha The probability of rejecting a true null hypothesis.

#### **Summary Statements**

A single-group design will be used to test whether the mean is different from 100 (H0:  $\mu$  = 100 versus H1:  $\mu \neq$  100). The comparison will be made using a two-sided, one-sample t-test, with a Type I error rate ( $\alpha$ ) of 0.01. The underlying distribution standard deviation is assumed to be 40. To detect a mean of 110 (corresponding to a difference of 10) with a sample size of 20, the power is 0.06051.

#### **Dropout-Inflated Sample Size**

Dropout Rate	Sample Size N	Dropout- Inflated Enrollment Sample Size N'	Expected Number of Dropouts D	
20%	20	25	5	
20%	40	50	10	
20%	60	75	15	
20%	80	100	20	
20%	100	125	25	
20%	120	150	30	
Dropout Rate T		, , ,		lost at random during the course of the study e treated as "missing"). Abbreviated as DR.
N T			· · ·	ntered by the user). If N subjects are evaluate ian will achieve the stated power.

	out of the N' subjects that are enrolled in the study, the design will achieve the stated power.
N'	The total number of subjects that should be enrolled in the study in order to obtain N evaluable subjects,
	based on the assumed dropout rate. N' is calculated by inflating N using the formula N' = N / (1 - DR), with
	N' always rounded up. (See Julious, S.A. (2010) pages 52-53, or Chow, S.C., Shao, J., Wang, H., and
	Lokhnygina, Y. (2018) pages 32-33.)
D	The expected number of dropouts. $D = N' - N$ .

#### **Dropout Summary Statements**

Anticipating a 20% dropout rate, 25 subjects should be enrolled to obtain a final sample size of 20 subjects.

#### References

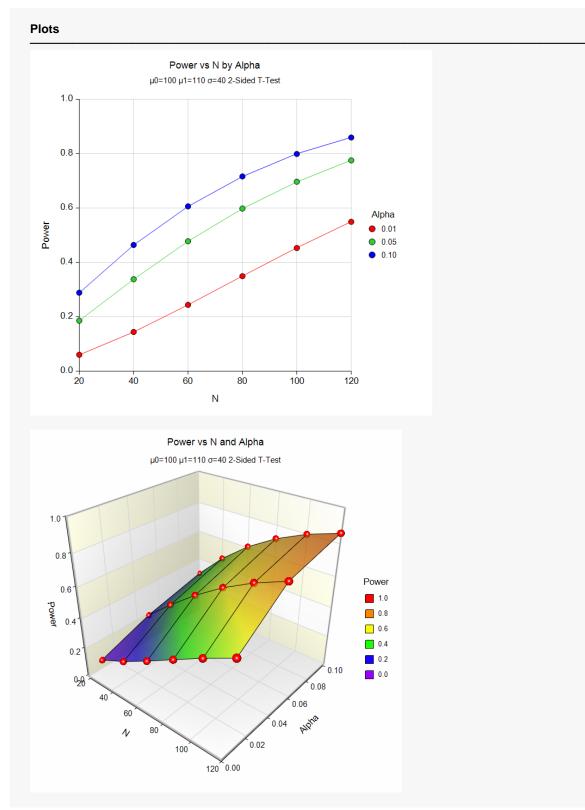
Chow, S.C., Shao, J., Wang, H., and Lokhnygina, Y. 2018. Sample Size Calculations in Clinical Research, Third Edition. Taylor & Francis/CRC. Boca Raton, Florida.

Machin, D., Campbell, M., Fayers, P., and Pinol, A. 1997. Sample Size Tables for Clinical Studies, 2nd Edition. Blackwell Science. Malden, MA.

Zar, Jerrold H. 1984. Biostatistical Analysis (Second Edition). Prentice-Hall. Englewood Cliffs, New Jersey.

This report shows the values of each of the parameters, one scenario per row. The values of power and beta were calculated from the other parameters.

### **Plots Section**



These plots show the relationship between sample size and power for various values of alpha.

# Example 2 – Finding the Sample Size

This example will consider the situation in which you are planning a study that will use the one-sample *t*-test and want to determine an appropriate sample size. This example is more subjective than the first because you now have to obtain estimates of all the parameters. In the first example, these estimates were provided by the data.

In studying deaths from SIDS (Sudden Infant Death Syndrome), one hypothesis put forward is that infants dying of SIDS weigh less than normal at birth. Suppose the average birth weight of infants is 3300 grams with a standard deviation of 663 grams. Use an alpha of 0.05 and power of both 0.80 and 0.90. How large a sample of SIDS infants will be needed to detect a drop in average weight of 25%? Of 10%? Of 5%? Note that applying these percentages to the average weight of 3300 yields 2475, 2970, and 3135.

Although a one-sided hypothesis is being considered, sample size estimates will assume a two-sided alternative to keep the research design in line with other studies.

## Setup

If the procedure window is not already open, use the PASS Home window to open it. The parameters for this example are listed below and are stored in the **Example 2** settings file. To load these settings to the procedure window, click **Open Example Settings File** in the Help Center or File menu.

Design Tab	
Solve For	Sample Size
Alternative Hypothesis	Two-Sided (H1: μ ≠ μ0)
Population Size	Infinite
Power	0.80 0.90
Alpha	0.05
μ0 (Null or Baseline Mean)	3300
µ1 (Actual Mean)	2475 2970 3135
$\sigma$ (Standard Deviation)	663

### Output

Click the Calculate button to perform the calculations and generate the following output.

Solve For: Hypothese		Size µ0 vs. H					
	Sample		Mean	1	Standard		
Power	Sample Size N	Null µ0	Actual µ1	Difference μ1 - μ0	Deviation σ	Effect Size	Alpha
0.85339	8	3300	2475	-825	663	1.244	0.05
0.90307	9	3300	2475	-825	663	1.244	0.05
0.80426	34	3300	2970	-330	663	0.498	0.05
0.90409	45	3300	2970	-330	663	0.498	0.05
0.80105	129	3300	3135	-165	663	0.249	0.05
0.90070	172	3300	3135	-165	663	0.249	0.05

This report shows the values of each of the parameters, one scenario per row. Since there were three values of  $\mu$ 1 and two values of power, there are a total of six rows in the report.

We were solving for the sample size, *N*. Notice that the increase in sample size seems to be most directly related to the difference between the two means. The difference in beta values does not seem to be as influential, especially at the smaller sample sizes.

Note that even though we set the power values at 0.8 and 0.9, these are not the power values that were achieved. This happens because *N* can only take on integer values. The program selects the first value of *N* that gives at least the values of alpha and power that were desired.

This example will consider the situation in which you want to determine how small of a difference between the two means can be detected by the *t*-test with specified values of the other parameters.

Continuing with the previous example, suppose about 50 SIDS deaths occur in a particular area per year. Using 50 as the sample size, 0.05 as alpha, and 0.80 as power, how large of a difference between the means is detectable?

### Setup

If the procedure window is not already open, use the PASS Home window to open it. The parameters for this example are listed below and are stored in the **Example 3** settings file. To load these settings to the procedure window, click **Open Example Settings File** in the Help Center or File menu.

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Solve For Alternative Hypothesis Population Size Power Alpha N (Sample Size) µ0 (Null or Baseline Mean)	Two-Sided (H1: μ ≠ μ0) Infinite 0.80 0.05 50 3300
$\sigma$ (Standard Deviation)	

## Output

Click the Calculate button to perform the calculations and generate the following output.

Solve Fo Hypothes	r: μ1 (Sea ses: Η0:μ=	arch < µ0) µ0 vs.						
Sample Size Power N	Samplo		Mean		Standard			
	Null µ0	Actual µ1	Difference μ1 - μ0	Deviation σ	Effect Size	Alpha		
0.8	50	3300	3032	-268	663	0.404	0.05	

With a sample of 50, a difference of 3032 - 3300 = -268 would be detectable. This difference represents about an 8% decrease in weight.

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# Example 4 – Paired T-Test

Usually, a researcher designs a study to compare two or more groups of subjects, so the one sample case described in this chapter occurs infrequently. However, there is a popular research design that does lead to the single mean test: *paired observations*.

For example, suppose researchers want to study the impact of an exercise program on the individual's weight. To do so they randomly select *N* individuals, weigh them, put them through the exercise program, and weigh them again. The variable of interest is not their actual weight, but how much their weight changed.

In this design, the data are analyzed using a one-sample *t*-test on the differences between the paired observations. The null hypothesis is that the average difference is zero. The alternative hypothesis is that the average difference is some nonzero value.

To study the impact of an exercise program on weight loss, the researchers decide to conduct a study that will be analyzed using the paired *t*-test. A sample of individuals will be weighed before and after a specified exercise program that will last three months. The difference in their weights will be analyzed.

Past experiments of this type have had standard deviations in the range of 10 to 15 pounds. The researcher wants to detect a difference of 5 pounds or more. Alpha values of 0.01 and 0.05 will be tried. Beta is set to 0.20 so that the power is 80%. How large of a sample must the researchers take?

#### Setup

If the procedure window is not already open, use the PASS Home window to open it. The parameters for this example are listed below and are stored in the **Example 4** settings file. To load these settings to the procedure window, click **Open Example Settings File** in the Help Center or File menu.

#### Design Tab

Solve For	Sample Size
Alternative Hypothesis	· · · · ·
Population Size	Infinite
Power	0.80
Alpha	0.01 0.05
μ0 (Null or Baseline Mean)	0
µ1 (Actual Mean)	5
$\sigma$ (Standard Deviation)	10 12.5 15

### Output

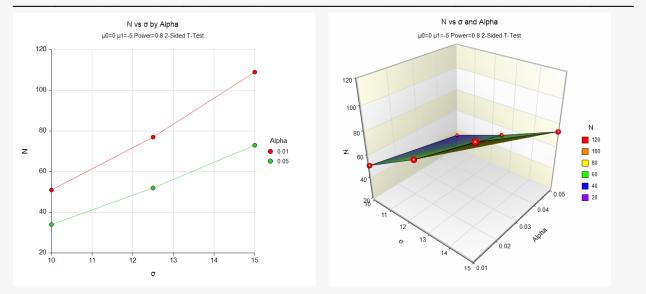
Click the Calculate button to perform the calculations and generate the following output.

Numeric	Results
Numeric	Nesuits

Solve For:	Sample Size	
	H0: µ = µ0 vs	s. H1:μ≠μ0

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Power	Sample Size N	Null µ0	Actual µ1	Difference μ1 - μ0	Standard Deviation σ	Effect Size	Alpha
0.80939	51	0	-5	-5	10.0	0.500	0.01
0.80778	34	0	-5	-5	10.0	0.500	0.05
0.80434	77	0	-5	-5	12.5	0.400	0.01
0.80779	52	0	-5	-5	12.5	0.400	0.05
0.80252	109	0	-5	-5	15.0	0.333	0.01
0.80230	73	0	-5	-5	15.0	0.333	0.05

Plots



The report shows the values of each of the parameters, one scenario per row. We were solving for the sample size, *N*.

Note that depending on our choice of assumptions, the sample size ranges from 34 to 109. Hence, the researchers have to make a careful determination of which standard deviation and significance level should be used.

# Example 5 – Validation using Chow, Shao, Wang, and Lokhnygina (2018)

Chow, Shao, Wang, and Lokhnygina (2018) presents an example on pages 45 and 46 of a two-sided onesample *t*-test sample size calculation in which  $\mu 0 = 1.5$ ,  $\mu 1 = 2.0$ ,  $\sigma = 1.0$ , alpha = 0.05, and power = 0.80. They obtain a sample size of 34.

### Setup

If the procedure window is not already open, use the PASS Home window to open it. The parameters for this example are listed below and are stored in the **Example 5** settings file. To load these settings to the procedure window, click **Open Example Settings File** in the Help Center or File menu.

Design Tab	
Solve For	Sample Size
Alternative Hypothesis	Two-Sided (H1: μ ≠ μ0)
Population Size	Infinite
Power	0.80
Alpha	0.05
μ0 (Null or Baseline Mean)	1.5
µ1 (Actual Mean)	2
σ (Standard Deviation)	1

### Output

Click the Calculate button to perform the calculations and generate the following output.

Solve For:Sample SizeHypotheses:H0: $\mu = \mu 0$ vs. H1: $\mu \neq \mu 0$									
Sample Size Power N	Sample	Mean			Standard				
	Null µ0	Actual µ1	Difference μ1 - μ0	Deviation σ	Effect Size	Alpha			
0.80778	34	1.5	2	0.5	1	0.5	0.05		

The sample size of 34 matches Chow, Shao, Wang, and Lokhnygina (2018) exactly.

# Example 6 – Validation using Zar (1984)

Zar (1984) pages 111-112 presents an example in which  $\mu$ 0 = 0.0,  $\mu$ 1 = 1.0,  $\sigma$  = 1.25, alpha = 0.05, and N = 12. Zar obtains an approximate power of 0.72.

## Setup

If the procedure window is not already open, use the PASS Home window to open it. The parameters for this example are listed below and are stored in the **Example 6** settings file. To load these settings to the procedure window, click **Open Example Settings File** in the Help Center or File menu.

Design Tab	
Solve For	Power
Alternative Hypothesis	Two-Sided (H1: μ ≠ μ0)
Population Size	Infinite
Alpha	0.05
N (Sample Size)	12
μ0 (Null or Baseline Mean)	0
µ1 (Actual Mean)	1
$\sigma$ (Standard Deviation)	1.25

## Output

Click the Calculate button to perform the calculations and generate the following output.

Solve For: Power Hypotheses: H0: $\mu = \mu 0$ vs. H1: $\mu \neq \mu 0$								
	Sample		Mea	n	Standard			
Power	Sample Size N	Null µ0	Actual µ1	Difference μ1 - μ0	Deviation σ	Effect Size	Alpha	
0.71366	12	0	1	1	1.3	0.8	0.05	

The difference between the power computed by **PASS** of 0.71366 and the 0.72 computed by Zar is due to Zar's use of an approximation to the noncentral *t* distribution.

# Example 7 – Validation using Machin (1997)

Machin, Campbell, Fayers, and Pinol (1997) page 37 presents an example in which  $\mu$ 0 = 0.0,  $\mu$ 1 = 0.2,  $\sigma$  = 1.0, alpha = 0.05, and beta = 0.20. They obtain a sample size of 199.

## Setup

If the procedure window is not already open, use the PASS Home window to open it. The parameters for this example are listed below and are stored in the **Example 7** settings file. To load these settings to the procedure window, click **Open Example Settings File** in the Help Center or File menu.

Design Tab	
Solve For	Sample Size
Alternative Hypothesis	Two-Sided (H1: μ ≠ μ0)
Population Size	Infinite
Power	0.80
Alpha	0.05
μ0 (Null or Baseline Mean)	0
µ1 (Actual Mean)	0.2
σ (Standard Deviation)	1

## Output

Click the Calculate button to perform the calculations and generate the following output.

Solve For: Sample Size Hypotheses: H0: $\mu = \mu 0$ vs. H1: $\mu \neq \mu 0$								
	Sample		Mear	า	Standard			
Power	Size	Null μ0	Actual µ1	Difference μ1 - μ0	Deviation σ	Effect Size	Alpha	
0.80169	199	0	0.2	0.2	1	0.2	0.05	

The sample size of 199 matches Machin's result.