

**Today:**  
**Section 12.2, Lesson 3: What can go wrong with hypothesis testing**  
**Section 12.4: Hypothesis tests for difference in two proportions**

**ANNOUNCEMENTS:**

- No discussion today.
- Check your grades on eee and notify me if any of them are incorrect.
- Quiz #7 begins Wed after class and ends Friday.
- Quiz #8 begins Wed before Thanksgiving and ends on *Monday after* Thanksgiving. That is the last quiz.
- Jason Kramer will give the lecture this Friday.

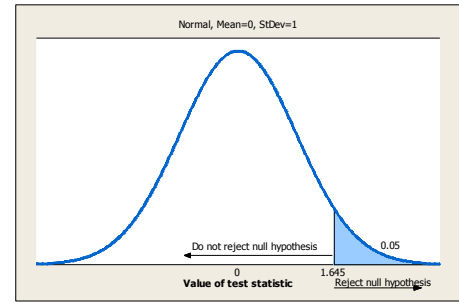
**HOMEWORK (due Fri, Nov 19):** Chapter 12: #62, 83, 101

**REVIEW OF HYPOTHESIS TEST FOR ONE PROPORTION  
 ONE-SIDED TEST, WITH PICTURE**

$H_0: p = p_0$  versus  $H_a: p > p_0$

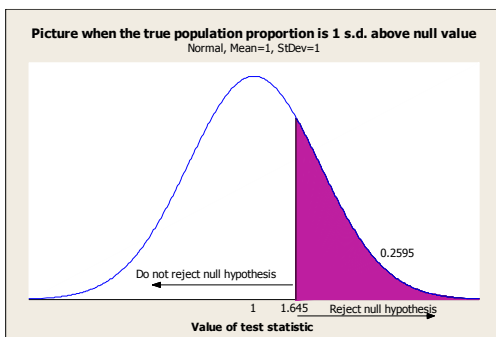
Reject  $H_0$  if  $p\text{-value} < .05$ . For what values of  $z$  does that happen?

Notation: *level of significance* =  $\alpha$  (alpha, usually .05)  
 $p\text{-value} < .05$  corresponds with  $z > 1.645$



**AN ILLUSTRATION OF WHAT HAPPENS WHEN  $H_a$  IS TRUE  
 A Specific Example**

Suppose the *truth* for the population proportion  $p$  is one standard deviation above the null value  $p_0$ . Then the mean for the standardized scores will be 1 instead of 0. How often would we (correctly) reject the null hypothesis in that case? Answer (purple region) is .2595.



**Section 12.2, Lesson 3**

*What Can Go Wrong in Hypothesis Testing: The Two Types of Errors and Their Probabilities*

Example: Case Study 1.6, aspirin and heart attacks. Found statistically significant relationship;  $p\text{-value}$  was  $< .00001$ .

Possible errors:

Type 1 error (*false positive*) occurs when:

- *Null hypothesis* is actually *true*, but
- Conclusion of test is to Reject  $H_0$  and *accept*  $H_a$

Type 2 error (*false negative*) occurs when:

- *Alternative hypothesis* is actually *true*, but
- Conclusion is that we *cannot reject*  $H_0$

## Heart attack and aspirin example:

Null hypothesis: The proportion of men who would have heart attacks if taking aspirin = the proportion of men who would have heart attacks if taking placebo.

Alternative hypothesis: The heart attack proportion is lower if men were to take aspirin than if they were not to take aspirin.

Type 1 error (false positive): Occurs if there really is *no relationship* between taking aspirin and heart attack prevention, but we conclude that there *is* a relationship.

Consequence: Good for aspirin companies! Possible bad side effects from aspirin, with no redeeming value.

Type 2 error (false negative):

Occurs if there really *is* a relationship but study *failed to find it*.

Consequence:

Miss out on recommending something that could save lives!

Which type of error is more serious?

Probably all agree that Type 2 is more serious.

Which could have occurred?

Type 1 error could have occurred. Type 2 could not have occurred, because we *did* find a significant relationship.

Aspirin Example: Consequences of the decisions

Decision:

<b>Truth:</b>	<b>Don't conclude aspirin works</b>	<b>Reject <math>H_0</math>, Conclude aspirin works</b>	<b>Which error can occur:</b>
<b><math>H_0</math>: Aspirin doesn't work</b>	OK	Type 1 error: People take aspirin needlessly; may suffer side effects	<u>Type 1 error</u> can <i>only</i> occur if aspirin <i>doesn't</i> work.
<b><math>H_a</math>: Aspirin works</b>	Type 2 error: Aspirin could save lives but we don't recognize benefits	OK	<u>Type 2 error</u> can <i>only</i> occur if aspirin <i>does</i> work.
<b>Which error can occur?</b>	Type 2 can only occur if $H_0$ is not rejected.	Type 1 can only occur if $H_0$ is rejected.	

Note that because  $H_0$  was *rejected* in this study, we could only have made a Type 1 error, not a Type 2 error.

## Some analogies to hypothesis testing:

**Analogy 1: Courtroom:**

Null hypothesis: Defendant is innocent.

Alternative hypothesis: Defendant is guilty

Note that the two possible conclusions are “not guilty” and “guilty.” The conclusion “not guilty” is equivalent to “don't reject  $H_0$ .” We don't say defendant is “innocent” just like we don't accept  $H_0$  in hypothesis testing.

Type 1 error is when defendant is *innocent* but *gets convicted*

Type 2 error is when defendant is *guilty* but *does not get convicted*.

Which one is more serious??

## Analogy 2: Medical test

*Null hypothesis:* You do not have the disease

*Alternative hypothesis:* You have the disease

Type 1 error: You *don't* have disease, but test says *you do*; a "false positive"

Type 2 error: You *do* have disease, but test says you do not; a "false negative"

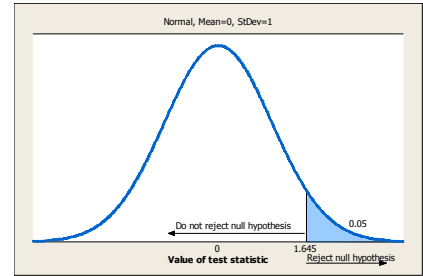
Which is more serious??

## Notes and Definitions:

### Probability related to Type 1 error:

The *conditional probability* of making a Type 1 error, given that  $H_0$  is true, is the *level of significance*  $\alpha$ . In most cases, this is .05. However, it should be adjusted to be lower (.01 is common) if a Type 1 error is *more serious* than a Type 2 error.

In probability notation:  $P(\text{Reject } H_0 \mid H_0 \text{ is true}) = \alpha$ , usually .05.



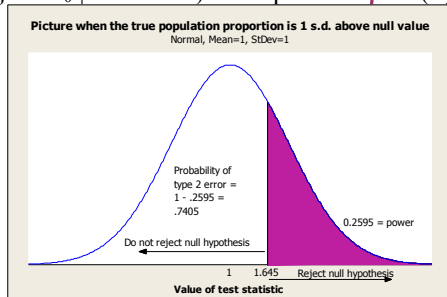
## Probability related to Type 2 error and Power:

The *conditional probability* of making a *correct decision*, given that  $H_a$  is true is called the *power* of the test. This can only be calculated if a *specific value* in  $H_a$  is specified.

*Conditional probability* of making a Type 2 error =  $1 - \text{power}$ .

$P(\text{Reject } H_0 \mid H_a \text{ is true}) = \text{power}$ .

$P(\text{Do not reject } H_0 \mid H_a \text{ is true}) = 1 - \text{power} = \beta = P(\text{Type 2 error})$ .



## How can we increase power and decrease P(Type 2 error)?

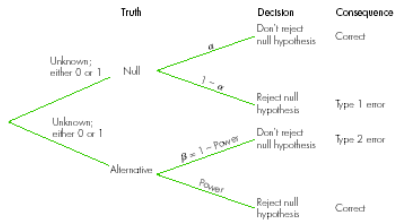
Power increases if:

- Sample size is increased (because having more evidence makes it easier to show that the alternative hypothesis is true, if it really is)
- The level of significance  $\alpha$  is increased (because it's easier to reject  $H_0$  when the cutoff point for the  $p$ -value is larger)
- The actual difference between the sample estimate and the null value increases (because it's easier to detect a true difference if it's large) *We have no control over this one!*

Trade-off must be taken into account when choosing  $\alpha$ . If  $\alpha$  is *small* it's *harder* to reject  $H_0$ . If  $\alpha$  is *large* it's *easier* to reject  $H_0$ :

- If Type 1 error is *more serious*, use *smaller*  $\alpha$ .
- If Type 2 error is *more serious*, use *larger*  $\alpha$ .

Ways to picture the errors:



Truth, decisions, consequences, conditional (row) probabilities:

**Decision:**

Truth:	Don't reject $H_0$	Reject $H_0$	Error can occur:
$H_0$	Correct $1 - \alpha$	Type 1 error $\alpha$	Type 1 error can <i>only</i> occur if $H_0$ true
$H_a$	Type 2 error $\beta = 1 - \text{power}$	Correct $\text{power}$	Type 2 error can <i>only</i> occur if $H_a$ is true.
<b>Error can occur:</b>	$H_0$ not rejected	$H_0$ rejected	

## SECTION 12.4: Test for difference in 2 proportions

### Reminder from when we started Chapter 9

Five situations we will cover for the rest of this quarter:

Parameter name and description	Population parameter	Sample statistic
<b>For Categorical Variables:</b>		
One population proportion (or probability)	$p$	$\hat{p}$
Difference in two population proportions	$p_1 - p_2$	$\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2$
<b>For Quantitative Variables:</b>		
One population mean	$\mu$	$\bar{x}$
Population mean of paired differences (dependent samples, paired)	$\mu_d$	$\bar{d}$
Difference in two population means (independent samples)	$\mu_1 - \mu_2$	$\bar{x}_1 - \bar{x}_2$

**For each situation will we:**

- ✓ Learn about the *sampling distribution* for the sample statistic
- ✓ Learn how to find a *confidence interval* for the true value of the parameter
- **Test hypotheses about the true value of the parameter**

## Comparing two proportions from independent samples

Reminder on how we get independent samples (Lecture 19):

- **Random samples** taken separately from two populations and same response variable is recorded.

Example: Compare proportions who think global warming is a problem, in two different years.

- **One random sample** taken and a variable recorded, but units are **categorized** to form two populations.

Example: Compare 21 and over with under 21 for proportion who drink alcohol.

- Participants **randomly assigned** to one of two treatment conditions, and same response variable is recorded.

Example: Compare aspirin and placebo groups for proportions who had heart attacks.

## Hypothesis Test for Difference in Two Proportions

**Example:** (Source: <http://www.pollingreport.com/enviro.htm>)  
Poll taken in June 2006, just after the May release of *An Inconvenient Truth*

Asked 1500 people "In your view, is global warming a very serious problem, somewhat serious, not too serious, or not a problem?"

Results:  $615/1500 = .41$  or **41%** answered "Very serious"

Poll taken again with different 1500 people in October, 2009.

Results:  $525/1500 = .35$  or **35%** answered "Very serious."

**Question:** Did the *population* proportion that thinks it's very serious go down from 2006 to 2009, or is it chance fluctuation?

## Notation and numbers for the Example:

Population parameter of interest is  $p_1 - p_2$  where:

$p_1 =$  proportion of all US adults in May 2006 who thought global warming was a serious problem.

$p_2 =$  proportion of all US adults in Oct 2009 who thought global warming was a serious problem.

$\hat{p}_1 =$  sample estimate from May 2006  $= X_1/n_1 = 615/1500 = .41$

$\hat{p}_2 =$  sample estimate from Oct 2009  $= X_2/n_2 = 525/1500 = .35$

Sample statistic is  $\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2 = .41 - .35 = .06$

Five steps to hypothesis testing for difference in 2 proportions:

See **Summary Box** on **pages 531-532**

**STEP 1:** Determine the null and alternative hypotheses.

Null hypothesis is  $H_0: p_1 - p_2 = 0$  (or  $p_1 = p_2$ ); null value = 0

Alternative hypothesis is *one* of these, based on context:

$H_a: p_1 - p_2 \neq 0$  (or  $p_1 \neq p_2$ )

$H_a: p_1 - p_2 > 0$  (or  $p_1 > p_2$ )

$H_a: p_1 - p_2 < 0$  (or  $p_1 < p_2$ )

### EXAMPLE:

Did the population proportion who think global warming is “very serious” drop from 2006 to 2009? This is the alternative hypothesis. (Note that it’s a one-sided test.)

$H_0: p_1 - p_2 = 0$  (no actual change in population proportions)

$H_a: p_1 - p_2 > 0$  (or  $p_1 > p_2$ ; 2006 proportion > 2009 proportion)

### STEP 2:

Verify data conditions. If met, summarize data into test statistic.

#### For Difference in Two Proportions:

Data conditions:  $n\hat{p}$  and  $n(1-\hat{p})$  are both at least 10 for both samples.

Test statistic:

$$z = \frac{\text{sample statistic} - \text{null value}}{(\text{null}) \text{ standard error}}$$

Sample statistic  $= \hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2$

Null value  $= 0$

Null standard error:

• Computed *assuming* null hypothesis is true.

• If null hypothesis *is* true, then  $p_1 = p_2$

• We get an estimate for the common value of  $p$  using *both samples*, then use that in the standard error formula. Details on next page.

$$\hat{p} = \frac{X_1 + X_2}{n_1 + n_2} = \frac{\text{combined successes}}{\text{combined sample sizes}}$$

Null standard error = estimate of  $\sqrt{\frac{p_1(1-p_1)}{n_1} + \frac{p_2(1-p_2)}{n_2}}$ , using combined estimate  $\hat{p}$  in place of both  $p_1$  and  $p_2$ .

So the test statistic is:

$$z = \frac{(\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2) - 0}{\sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}{n_1} + \frac{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}{n_2}}} = \frac{(\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2) - 0}{\sqrt{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})\left(\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2}\right)}}$$

## Step 2 for the Example:

Data conditions are met, since both sample sizes are 1500.

$$\hat{p} = \frac{X_1 + X_2}{n_1 + n_2} = \frac{\text{combined successes}}{\text{combined sample sizes}} = \frac{615 + 525}{1500 + 1500} = \frac{1140}{3000} = .38$$

$$\text{Null standard error} = \sqrt{(.38)(1-.38)\left(\frac{1}{1500} + \frac{1}{1500}\right)} = .0177$$

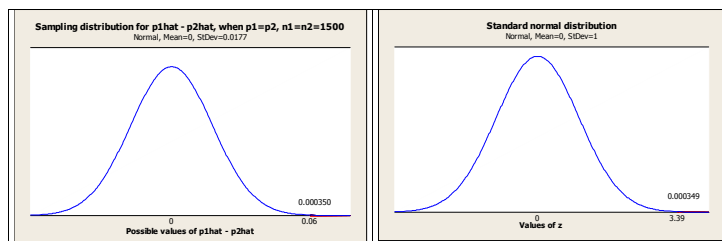
Test statistic:

$$z = \frac{\text{sample statistic} - \text{null value}}{(\text{null}) \text{ standard error}} = \frac{.06 - 0}{.0177} = 3.39$$

## Pictures:

On left: Sampling distribution of  $\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2$  when population proportions are equal and sample sizes are both 1500, showing where the observed value of .06 falls.

On right: The same picture, converted to z-scores.



Note that area above  $\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2 = 0.06$  is so small you can't see it!

## STEP 3:

Assuming the null hypothesis is true, find the p-value.

General:  $p$ -value = the probability of a test statistic as extreme as the one observed or more so, in the direction of  $H_a$ , if the null hypothesis is true.

Difference in two proportions, same idea as one proportion.

Depends on the alternative hypothesis. See pictures on p. 517

Alternative hypothesis:

$H_a: p_1 - p_2 > 0$  (a one-sided hypothesis)

$H_a: p_1 - p_2 < 0$  (a one-sided hypothesis)

$H_a: p_1 - p_2 \neq 0$  (a two-sided hypothesis)

p-value is:

Area above the test statistic  $z$

Area below the test statistic  $z$

$2 \times$  the area above  $|z|$  = area in tails beyond  $-z$  and  $z$

## Example:

Alternative hypothesis is one-sided

$H_a: p_1 - p_2 > 0$

$p$ -value = Area above the test statistic  $z = 3.39$

From Table A.1,  $p$ -value = area above 3.39 =  $1 - .9997 = .0003$ .

## STEP 4:

Decide whether or not the result is statistically significant based on the  $p$ -value.

**Example:** Use  $\alpha$  of .05, as usual

$p$ -value = .0003 < .05, so:

- Reject the null hypothesis.
- Accept the alternative hypothesis
- The result is statistically significant

**Step 5:** Report the conclusion in the context of the situation.

**Example:**

Conclusion: From May 2006 to October 2009 there was a statistically significant decrease in the proportion of US adults who think global warming is “very serious.”

Interpretation of the  $p$ -value (for this one-sided test):

It’s a *conditional probability*. Conditional on the null hypothesis being true (equal population proportions), what is the probability that we would observe a *sample difference* as large as the one observed or larger just by chance?

Specific to this example: *If* there really were no change in the proportion of the population who think global warming is “very serious” what is the probability of observing a sample proportion in 2009 that is .06 (6%) or more lower than the sample proportion in 2006? Answer: The probability is .0003. Therefore, we *reject the idea (the hypothesis)* that there was no change in the population proportion.