#### **TODAY:**

- Section 12.1, Lesson 3: What can go wrong with hypothesis testing
- Section 12.3: Hypothesis tests for difference in two proportions

#### **ANNOUNCEMENTS:**

- Make sure you check your grades on eee and notify me if any of them are incorrect or missing.
- Friday discussion is for credit this week. Last chance!

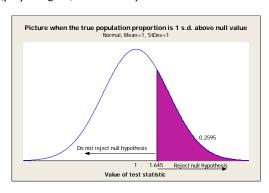
### **HOMEWORK** (due Mon, March 11):

Chapter 12:

#62 and 64 (count together as 1, find p-values for #62), 90, 112

## AN ILLUSTRATION OF WHAT HAPPENS WHEN Ha IS TRUE

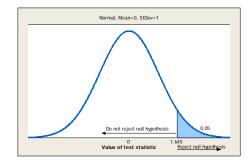
A Specific Example of finding *power: Suppose* the *truth* for the population proportion p is one standard deviation above the null value  $p_0$ . Then the mean for the standardized scores will be 1 instead of 0. How often would we (correctly) reject the null hypothesis in that case? Answer (purple region)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



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

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

Reject H<sub>0</sub> if *p*-value < .05. For what values of z does that happen? Notation: level of significance =  $\alpha$  (alpha, usually .05) *p*-value < .05 corresponds with z > 1.645 (rejection region)



#### Section 12.1, Lesson 3

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

<u>Type 1 error</u> (*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  $H_0$

<u>Example</u>: Case Study 1.6, aspirin and heart attacks. Found statistically significant relationship; *p-value* was < .00001.

## Heart attack and aspirin example:

Null hypothesis: Proportion of men who would have heart attacks if taking aspirin  $(p_1)$  = Proportion of men who would have heart attacks if taking placebo (p<sub>2</sub>).

In symbols:

$$H_0$$
:  $p_1 = p_2$ 

or 
$$H_0$$
:  $p_1 - p_2 = 0$ 

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

In symbols:

$$H_a$$
:  $p_1 < p_2$ 

or 
$$H_0$$
:  $p_1 - p_2 < 0$ 

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! For consumers, possible side effects from aspirin, with no redeeming value.

# **Aspirin Example:** Consequences of the decisions

#### **Decision:**

Decision.					
Truth:	Don't reject H <sub>0</sub> , Don't conclude aspirin works	Reject H <sub>0</sub> , Conclude aspirin works	Which error could occur:		
H <sub>0</sub> : Aspirin doesn't work	OK	Type 1 error: People take aspirin needlessly; may suffer side effects	Type 1		
Ha: Aspirin works	Type 2 error: Aspirin could save lives but we don't recognize benefits	OK	Type 2		
Which error could occur?	Type 2	Type 1			

Note that because H<sub>0</sub> was rejected in this study, we could only have made a Type 1 error, not a Type 2 error.

# Type 2 error (false negative):

Occurs if there is a relationship but the 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.

#### Some analogies to hypothesis testing:

# **Analogy 1:** Courtroom:

Null hypothesis: Defendant is innocent. Alternative hypothesis: Defendant is guilty

- The two possible conclusions are "not guilty" and "guilty."
- The conclusion "not guilty" is equivalent to "don't reject H<sub>0</sub>."
- We don't say defendant is "innocent" just like we don't accept H<sub>0</sub> 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

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

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

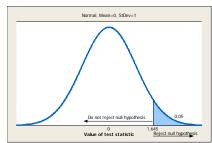
Which is more serious??

#### **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.

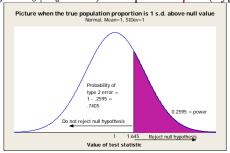
In probability notation: P(Reject  $H_0 \mid H_0$  is true) =  $\alpha$ , usually .05.



#### Probability related to Type 2 error and Power:

- Conditional probability of correct decision, given H<sub>a</sub> is true is called the *power* of the test.
  - Can only calculate numerically for a specific value in H<sub>a</sub>.
- Conditional probability of Type 2 error = 1 powerP(Reject H<sub>0</sub> | H<sub>a</sub> is true) = power.

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



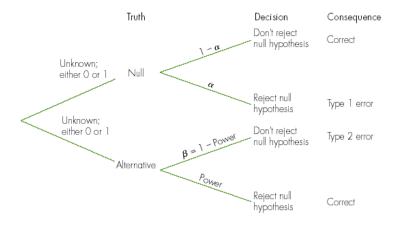
# **How can we increase power and decrease P(Type 2 error)?** Power increases if:

- 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 rejection region 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 (see page 463):



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

#### **Decision:**

Truth:	Don't reject H <sub>0</sub>	Reject H <sub>0</sub>	Error can occur:
ш	Correct	Type 1 error	Type 1 error can
$\mathbf{H}_0$	$1-\alpha$	α	only occur if H <sub>0</sub> true
	Type 2 error	Correct	Type 2 error can
$\mathbf{H_a}$	$\beta = 1 - \text{power}$		only occur if H <sub>a</sub> is
	$\beta = 1 - \text{power}$	power	true.
Error can	Type 2, when	Type 1, when	
occur:	H <sub>0</sub> not rejected	H <sub>0</sub> rejected	

# SECTION 12.3: 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
For Categorical Variables:		
One population proportion (or probability)	p	$\hat{p}$
Difference in two population proportions	$p_l - p_2$	$\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2$
For Quantitative Variables:		
One population mean	μ	$\overline{x}$
Population mean of paired differences (dependent samples, paired)	$\mu_{d}$	$\bar{d}$
Difference in two population means (independent samples)	$\mu_1 - \mu_2$	$\overline{x}_1 - \overline{x}_2$

### For each situation will we:

- $\sqrt{\text{Learn about the sampling distribution for the sample statistic}}$
- $\sqrt{\text{Learn how to find a } confidence interval for the true value of the parameter}$
- 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.
- <u>Example</u>: 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.
- <u>Example</u>: 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) Pew Research Center Poll taken in June 2006, just after the May release of *An Inconvenient Truth* (Al Gore's movie about global warming)

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 2001 people in November, 2011.

Results: 760/2001 = .38 or 38% answered "Very serious."

**Question:** Did the *population* proportion that thinks it's very serious go down from 2006 to 2011, 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 very serious problem.

 $p_2$  = proportion of all US adults in Nov 2011 who thought global warming was a very serious problem.

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

 $\hat{P}_2$  = sample estimate from Nov 2011 =  $X_2/n_2$  = 760/2001 = .38

Sample statistic is  $\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2 = .41 - .38 = .03$ 

#### SIDE NOTE ABOUT THIS EXAMPLE:

They have not asked this question again since the 2011 poll, but in November 2012 a different poll asked this:

"If nothing is done to reduce global warming in the future, how serious of a problem do you think it will be for THE UNITED STATES: very serious, somewhat serious, not so serious, or not serious at all?"

This was a month after Hurricane Sandy.

Results: 49% said *very serious* and an additional 31% said *somewhat serious*. So clearly public opinion depends on when the poll is taken!

Five steps to hypothesis testing for difference in 2 proportions: See Summary Box on page 479

**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:

 $H_a: p_1 - p_2 \neq 0 \quad (\text{or } p_1 \neq p_2)$ 

 $H_a: p_1 - p_2 > 0 \quad (\text{or } p_1 > p_2)$ 

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

#### **EXAMPLE:**

Did the population proportion who think global warming is "very serious" drop from 2006 to 2011? This is the alternative hypothesis. (Note that it's a <u>one-sided test</u>.)

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

 $H_a$ :  $p_1 - p_2 > 0$  (or  $p_1 > p_2$ ; 2006 proportion > 2011 proportion)

#### STEP 2:

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

# For Difference in Two Proportions:

<u>Data conditions</u>:  $n\hat{p}$  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.

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

$$\hat{p} = \frac{X_1 + X_2}{n_1 + n_2} = \frac{\text{combined successes}}{\text{combined sample sizes}} = \frac{615 + 760}{1500 + 2001} = \frac{1375}{3501} = .39$$

Null standard error = 
$$\sqrt{(.39)(1-.39)(\frac{1}{1500} + \frac{1}{2001})} = .0167$$

Test statistic:

$$z = \frac{\text{sample statistic} - \text{null value}}{\text{(null) standard error}} = \frac{.03 - 0}{.0167} = 1.80$$

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

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:

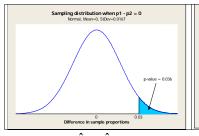
$$z = \frac{(\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2) - 0}{\sqrt{\frac{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}{n_1} + \frac{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})}{n_2}}} = \frac{(\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2) - 0}{\sqrt{\hat{p}(1-\hat{p})(\frac{1}{n_1} + \frac{1}{n_2})}}$$

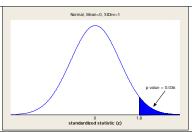
This "null standard error" is used because it's the best way to estimate the standard deviation when in fact  $p_1 = p_2$ , i.e. when the null hypothesis is true.

#### Pictures:

On left: Sampling distribution of  $\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2$  when population proportions are equal, showing where the observed value of  $\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2 = .03$  falls.

On right: Same picture, converted to z-scores, showing z = 1.80.





Area above  $\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2 = 0.03$  is .036

Area above z = 1.80, is 0.036.

#### **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. **465** 

Alternative hypothesis:	p-value is:
$H_a$ : $p_1 - p_2 > 0$ (a <u>one-sided</u> hypothesis)	Area <u>above</u> the test statistic z
$H_a$ : $p_1 - p_2 \le 0$ (a <u>one-sided</u> hypothesis)	Area <u>below</u> the test statistic z
$H_a$ : $p_1 - p_2 \neq 0$ (a <u>two-sided</u> hypothesis)	2 × the area above  z  = area in tails beyond –z and z

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

<u>Conclusion</u>: From May 2006 to November 2011 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 2011 that is .03 (3%) or more lower than the sample proportion in 2006? <u>Answer</u>: The probability is .036. Therefore, we *reject the idea* (the hypothesis) that there was no change in the population proportion.

#### Example:

Alternative hypothesis is one-sided  $H_a$ :  $p_1 - p_2 > 0$  p-value = Area <u>above</u> the test statistic z = 1.80 From Table A.1, p-value = area above 1.80 =  $1 - .9641 = .0359 \approx .036$ .

#### **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 = .036 < .05, so:

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