

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

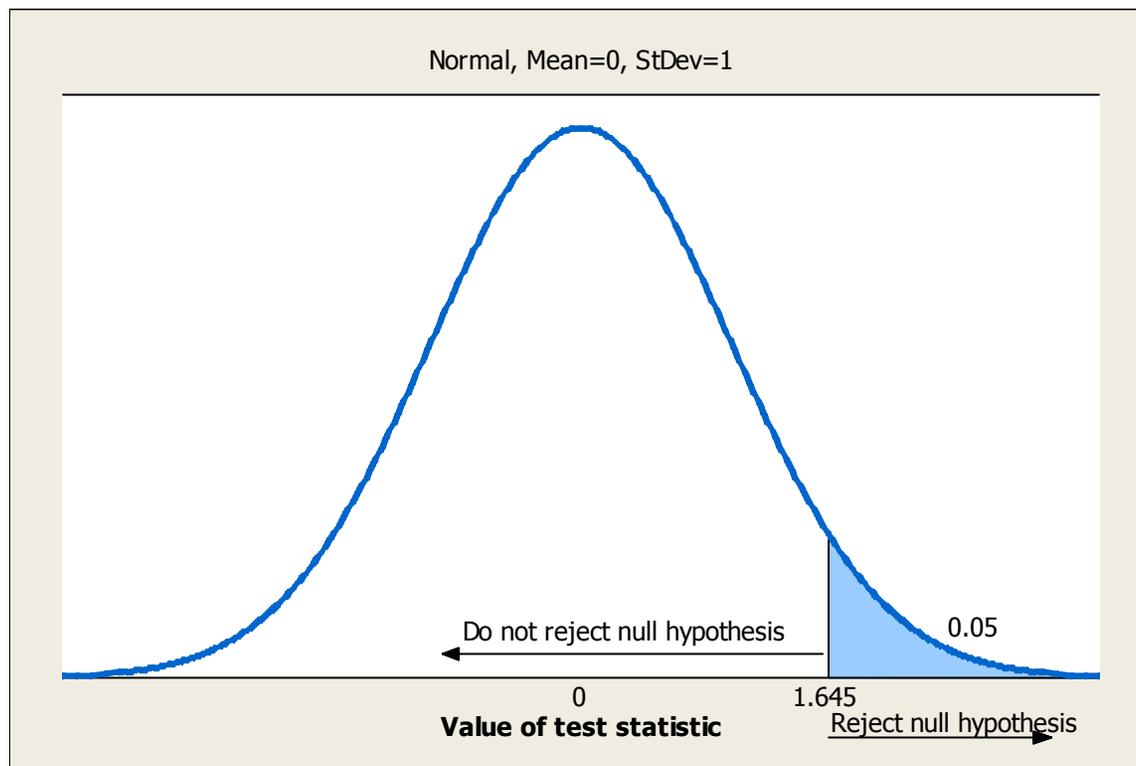
REVIEW OF HYPOTHESIS TEST FOR ONE PROPORTION ONE-SIDED TEST, WITH PICTURE

$$H_0: p = p_0 \quad \text{versus} \quad H_a: p > p_0$$

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

Notation: *level of significance* = α (alpha, usually .05)

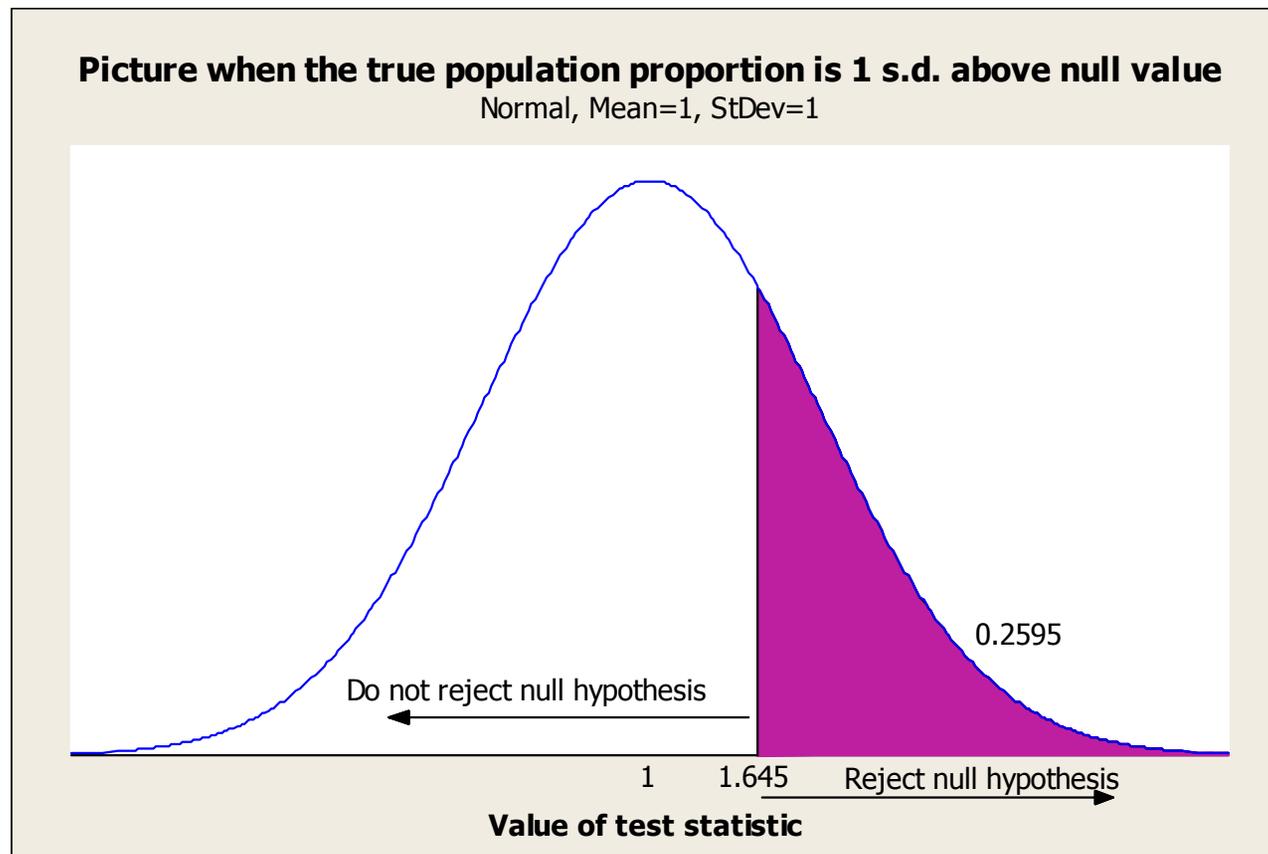
p -value $< .05$ corresponds with $z > 1.645$



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-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:

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

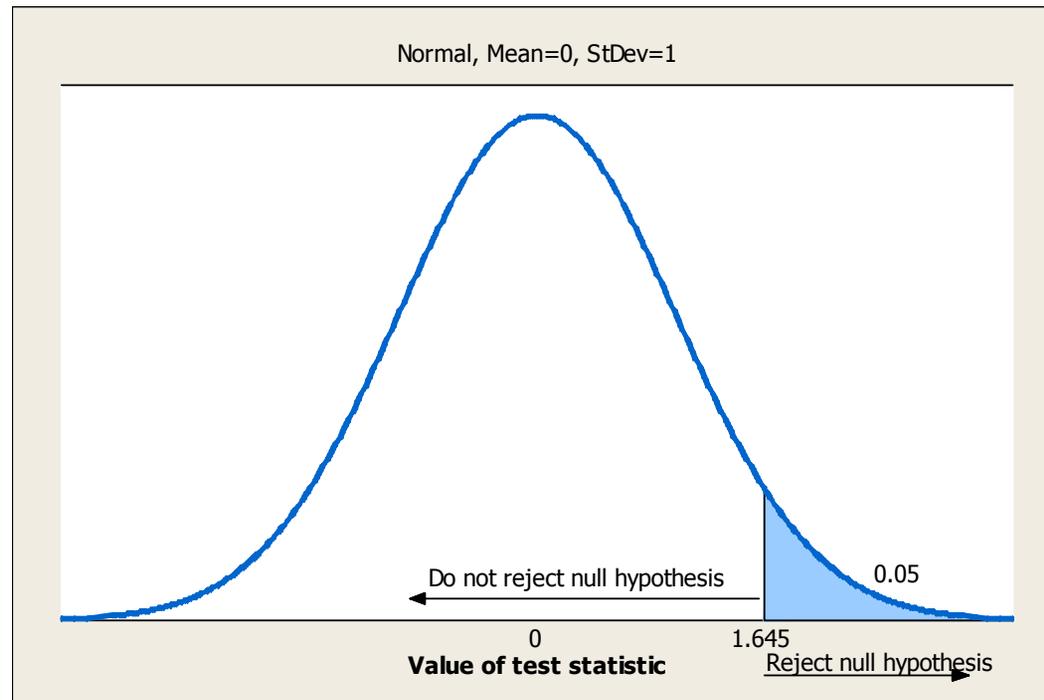
Which is more serious??

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* α . 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.



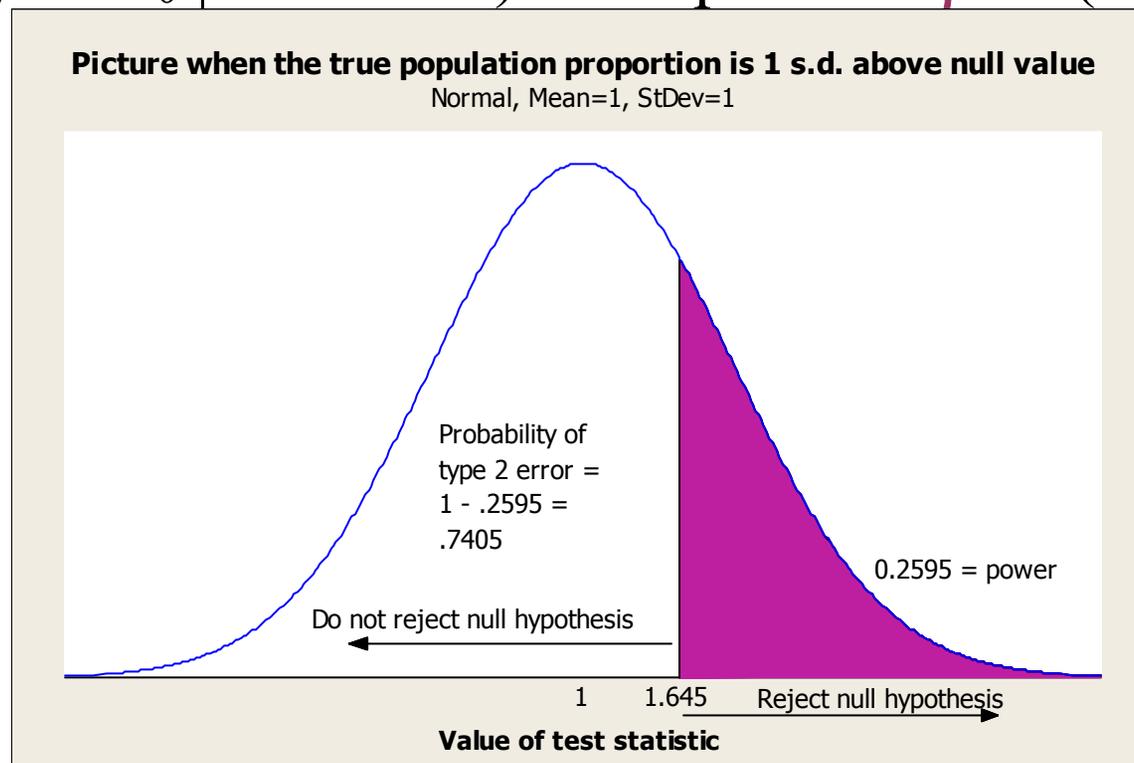
Probability related to Type 2 error and Power:

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)?

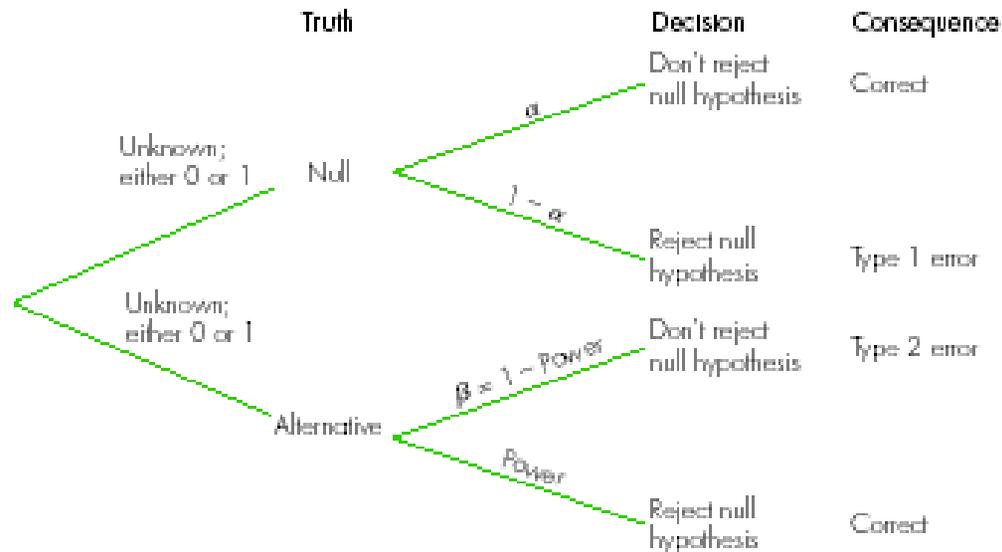
Power increases if:

- 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 α 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 α . If α is *small* it's *harder* to reject H_0 . If α is *large* it's *easier* to reject H_0 :

- If Type 1 error is *more* serious, use *smaller* α .
- If Type 2 error is *more* serious, use *larger* α .

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 α	Type 1 error can <i>only</i> occur if H_0 true
H_a	Type 2 error $\beta = 1 - \text{power}$	Correct power	Type 2 error can <i>only</i> occur if H_a is true.
Error can occur:	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
<i>For Categorical Variables:</i>		
One population proportion (or probability)	p	\hat{p}
Difference in two population proportions	$p_1 - p_2$	$\hat{p}_1 - \hat{p}_2$
<i>For Quantitative Variables:</i>		
One population mean	μ	\bar{x}
Population mean of paired differences (dependent samples, paired)	μ_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.

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

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

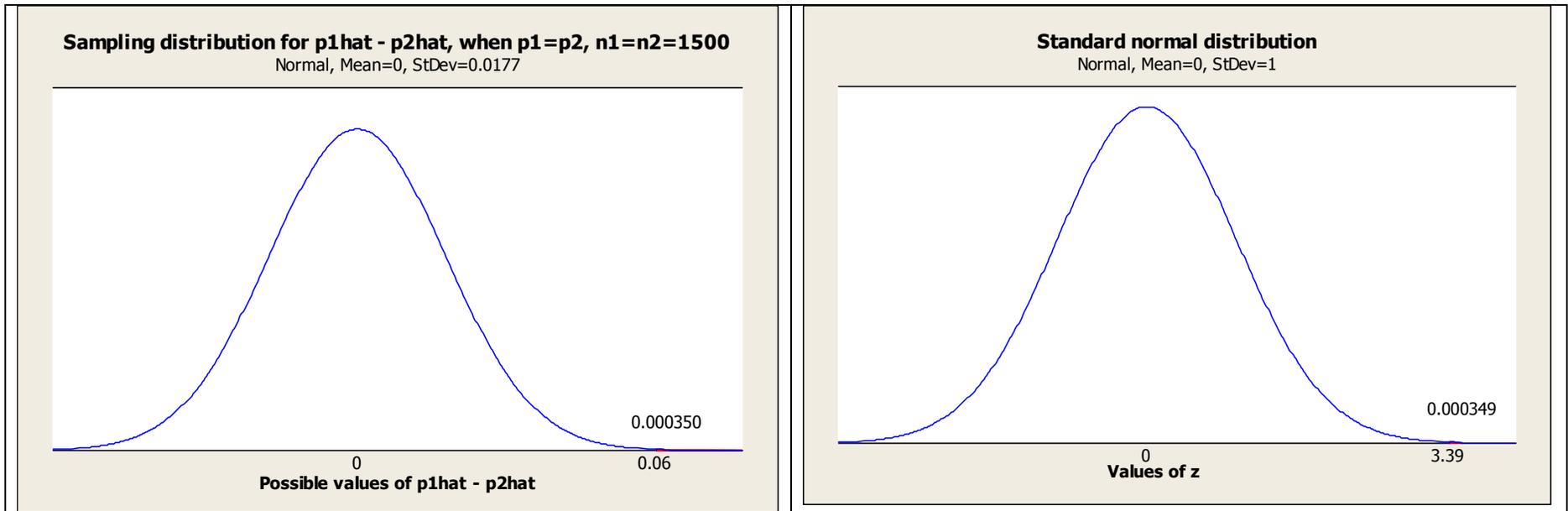
Test statistic:

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

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:

p-value is:

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

Area above the test statistic z

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

Area below the test statistic z

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

$2 \times$ 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 α 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.