Lecture 26/Chapter 22 Hypothesis Tests for Proportions

- ■Null and Alternative Hypotheses
- Standardizing Sample Proportion
- □*P*-value, Conclusions
- Examples

Two Forms of Inference

Confidence interval: Set up a range of plausible values for the unknown population proportion (if variable of interest is categorical) or mean (if variable of interest is quantitative).

Hypothesis test: Decide if a particular proposed value is plausible for the unknown population proportion (if variable of interest is categorical) or mean (if variable of interest is quantitative).

Example: Revisiting the Wording of Questions

- Background: A Pew poll asked if people supported *civil unions* for gays; some were asked **before** a question about whether they supported *marriage* for gays; others **after**. Of 735 people asked **before** the marriage question, 55% opposed civil unions. Of 780 asked **after** the marriage question, 47% opposed.
- □ **Question:** What explains the difference?
- Response:

Example: Testing a Hypothesis about a Majority

- **Background**: In a Pew poll of 735 people, 0.55 opposed civil unions for gays.
- Question: Are we convinced that a majority (more than 0.5) of the population oppose civil unions for gays?
- Response: It depends; if the population proportion opposed were only ____, how improbable would it be for at least ____ in a random sample of 735 people to be opposed?

Example: Testing a Hypothesis about a Minority

- Background: In a slightly different Pew poll of 780 people, 0.47 opposed civil unions for gays.
- Question: Are we convinced that a minority (less than 0.5) of the population oppose civil unions for gays?
- Response: It depends; if the population proportion opposed were as high as _____, how improbable would it be for no more than _____ in a random sample of 780 people to be opposed?

Note: In both examples, we test a **hypothesis** about the larger population, and our conclusion hinges on the *probability* of observed behavior occurring in a random sample. This probability is called the **P-value**.

- 1. Formulate hypotheses.
- 2. Summarize/standardize data.
- 3. Determine the P-value.
- 4. Make a decision about the unknown population value (proportion or mean).

Null and Alternative Hypotheses

For a test about a single proportion,

- Null hypothesis: claim that the population proportion equals a proposed value.
- Alternative hypothesis: claim that the population proportion is greater, less, or not equal to a proposed value.

An alternative formulated with \neq is **two-sided**; with > or < is **one-sided**.

- 1. Formulate hypotheses.
- 2. Summarize/standardize data.
- 3. Determine the P-value.
- 4. Make a decision about the unknown population value (proportion or mean).

Standardizing Normal Values (Review)

Put a value of a normal distribution into perspective by standardizing to its *z*-score:

 $z = \frac{\text{observed value - mean}}{\text{standard deviation}}$

The observed value that we need to standardize in this context is the **sample proportion**. We've established Rules for its mean and standard deviation, and for when the **shape** is approximately normal, so that a probability (the *P*-value) can be assessed with the normal table.

Rule for Sample Proportions (Review)

- □ **Center:** The mean of sample proportions equals the true population proportion.
- □ **Spread:** The standard deviation of sample proportions is standard error =

population proportion × (1-population proportion) sample size

■ **Shape:** (Central Limit Theorem) The frequency curve of proportions from the various samples is approximately normal.

Standardized Sample Proportion

□ To test a hypothesis about an unknown population proportion, find sample proportion and standardize to

$$z = \frac{\text{sample proportion - population proportion}}{\sqrt{\frac{\text{population proportion (1-population proportion)}}{\text{sample size}}}$$

 \Box z is called the **test statistic**.

Note that "sample proportion" is what we've observed, "population proportion" is the value proposed in the null hypothesis.

Conditions for Rule of Sample Proportions

- Randomness [affects center]
 - Can't be biased for or against certain values
- 2. Independence [affects spread]
 - If sampling without replacement, sample should be less than 1/10 population size
- 3. Large enough sample size [affects **shape**]
 - Should sample enough to expect at least 5 each in and out of the category of interest.
 - If 1st two conditions don't hold, the mean and sd in z are wrong; if 3rd doesn't hold, P-value is wrong.

- 1. Formulate hypotheses.
- 2. Summarize/standardize data.
- 3. Determine the *P*-value.
- 4. Make a decision about the unknown population value (proportion or mean).

P-value in Hypothesis Test about Proportion

The *P*-value is the probability, assuming the null hypothesis is true, of a sample proportion at least as low/high/different as the one we observed. In particular, it depends on whether the alternative hypothesis is formulated with a less than, greater than, or not-equal sign.

- 1. Formulate hypotheses.
- 2. Summarize/standardize data.
- 3. Determine the *P*-value.
- 4. Make a decision about the unknown population value (proportion or mean).

Making a Decision Based on a P-value

If the *P*-value in our hypothesis test is small, our sample proportion is improbably low/high/different, assuming the null hypothesis to be true. We conclude it is **not** true: we reject the null hypothesis and believe the alternative.

If the *P*-value is not small, our sample proportion is believable, assuming the null hypothesis to be true. We are willing to believe the null hypothesis.

P-value small \longrightarrow reject null hypothesis P-value not small \longrightarrow don't reject null hypothesis

Hypothesis Test for Proportions: Details

- null hypothesis: pop proportion = proposed value
 alt hyp: pop proportion < or > or ≠ proposed value
- 2. Find sample proportion and standardize to z.
- 3. Find the *P*-value= probability of sample proportion as low/high/different as the one observed; same as probability of *z* this far below/above/away from 0.
- 4. If the *P*-value is small, conclude alternative is true. In this case, we say the data are **statistically significant** (too extreme to attribute to chance). Otherwise, continue to believe the null hypothesis.

Example: Testing a Hypothesis about a Majority

- **Background**: In a Pew poll of 735 people, 0.55 opposed civil unions for gays.
- Question: Are we convinced that a majority (more than 0.5) of the population oppose civil unions for gays?
- □ Response:
- 1. Null: pop proportion _____ Alt: pop proportion_____
- 2. Sample proportion=____, z =
- 3. P-value=prob of z this far above 0:
- 4. Because the *P*-value is small, we reject null hypothesis. Conclude

Example: Testing a Hypothesis about a Minority

- **Background**: In a Pew poll of 780 people, 0.47 opposed civil unions for gays.
- Question: Are we convinced that a minority (less than 0.5) of the population oppose civil unions for gays?
- □ Response:
- 1. Null: pop proportion _____Alt: pop proportion _____
- 2. Sample proportion = $\underline{\hspace{1cm}}$, z =
- 3. P-value=prob of z this far below 0: approximately_____
- 4. Because the *P*-value is _____

Example: Testing a Hypothesis about M&Ms

- **Background**: Population proportion of red M&Ms is unknown. In a random sample, 15/75=0.20 are red.
- **Question:** Are we willing to believe that 1/6 = 0.17 of all M&Ms are red?
- □ Response:
- 1. Null: pop proportion _____Alt: pop proportion _____
- 2. Sample proportion = $\underline{\hspace{1cm}}$, z =
- 3. P-value=prob of z this far away from 0 (either direction)
- 4. Because the *P*-value isn't too small,