

We want to know if the percent of people who support Trump has changed or if more than half of all people support capital punishment.

General Education Statistics
Class Notes

Hypothesis Tests for Population Proportions (Section 10.2)

In 2001, 38% of adults with children under the age of 18 reported that their family ate dinner together seven nights a week. Has this percentage gone down since 2001?

Lipitor (a cholesterol lowering drug) caused 2.2% of patients in a clinical trial to develop flu-like symptoms. Other cholesterol lowering drugs report that 1.9% of their patients develop flu-like symptoms. Is there evidence that Lipitor causes this reaction more than the competition?

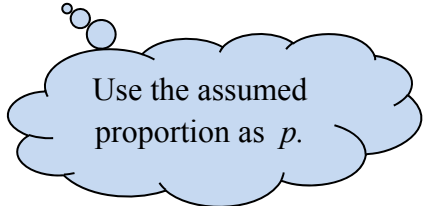
We want to test whether some proportion has changed over time or differs dramatically from another proportion. We will use hypothesis tests that were introduced in the previous section.

Recall: Definition: The **sample proportion**, denoted by \hat{p} , is given by $\hat{p} = x/n$ where x is the number of individuals in the sample (of size n) that share some characteristic. The mean of the sampling distribution of \hat{p} is $\mu_{\hat{p}} = p$. The standard deviation of the sampling distribution of

$$\hat{p} \text{ is } \sigma_{\hat{p}} = \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}} .$$

The statistics we do here is based on the fact that the sample proportion is normally distributed. Otherwise, these hypothesis tests are *not* valid. Remember that requires that we verify the following. For a simple random sample of size n with a population proportion p ,

1. the shape of the sampling distribution of \hat{p} is approximately normal if $np(1-p) \geq 10$,
2. the sample is a simple random sample, and
3. the sampled values are independent of each other (or $n \leq .05N$).



Use the assumed proportion as p .

If we sample adults with children under the age of 18 today and we find that 34% report eating dinner together seven nights a week, is this evidence that the *population* itself has experienced a decrease in this percentage from 2001? Or maybe the sample we took just *happened* to give us a lower number? If we assume the population still eats dinner together at a rate of 38% (as was reported in 2001), but find the sample that got 34% to be **unusual**, we can conclude with some certainty that the population percentage actually has decreased.

We will investigate two methods of performing hypothesis tests. We will look at the **Classical approach** and the **P-value approach**.

Definition: Statistically significant: When observed results are unlikely under the assumption that the null hypothesis is true, we say the result is **statistically significant**. When results are found to be statistically significant, **we reject the null hypothesis**.

The Classical Approach:

We will say that the sample evidence is statistically significant (or sufficient) if the sample proportion is too many standard deviations, say 2, away from the assumed population proportion.

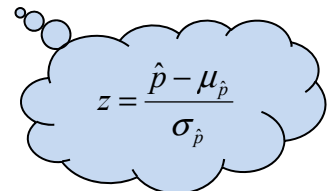
expl 1: Let's take a closer look at the 2001 study of families eating habits. Assume the true population percentage is 38%. Does our (fictitious) sample of 300 adults that showed 34% mean that there is a decline in families eating together?

a.) First, determine the null and alternative hypotheses. Label them as H_0 and H_1 .

b.) Assume that the sample is a simple random sample and that the sample size is less than 5% of the population size. Also, verify that $np(1-p) \geq 10$ by using $n = 300$ and $p = .38$.

c.) Calculate $\sigma_{\hat{p}} = \sqrt{\frac{p(1-p)}{n}}$ by using $n = 300$ and $p = .38$. Also, we know that $\mu_{\hat{p}} = p$.

d.) Find the number of standard deviations below the mean that $\hat{p} = 34\%$ is. In other words, find the z -score for $\hat{p} = 0.34$.

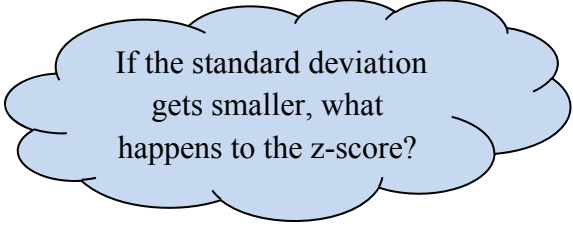

$$z = \frac{\hat{p} - \mu_{\hat{p}}}{\sigma_{\hat{p}}}$$

e.) We will say that the sample evidence is statistically significant if the sample proportion is two or more standard deviations away from the assumed population proportion. Complete the sentences by circling your choices.

We [reject *or* do not reject] the null hypothesis. We [do find *or* do not find] sufficient evidence that the true proportion of families who eat dinner together seven nights a week has decreased since 2001.

expl 2: If the sample from the previous example had 700 respondents, the standard deviation would have been $\sigma_{\hat{p}} = \sqrt{\frac{.38(1-.38)}{700}} = 0.018$. Answer the questions that follow.

a.) Recalculate the z -score under this condition.



If the standard deviation gets smaller, what happens to the z -score?

b.) We will say that the sample evidence is statistically significant if the sample proportion is two or more standard deviations away from the assumed population proportion. Complete the sentences by circling your choices.

We [reject *or* do not reject] the null hypothesis. We [do find *or* do not find] sufficient evidence that the true proportion of families who eat dinner together seven nights a week has decreased since 2001.

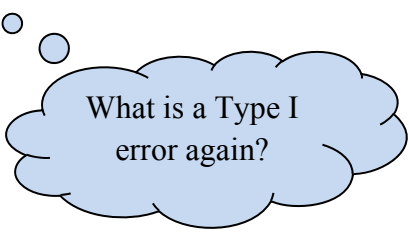
What does this mean?:

Again, given sample information that is *so* far from the assumed population information, we have two possible conclusions.

One is that our sample (being random) just *happened* to differ from the true population that much.

Or, and this is the one we latch onto, the sample reveals that the assumed population information is likely untrue. Remember, we do *not* conclude this without a shadow of a doubt. That is why we say “there is sufficient evidence to ...”

Because the area to the left of 2 standard deviations under the normal curve is 0.0228, this procedure will cause us to make a Type I error 2.28% of the time.



What is a Type I error again?

Summary of the Classical Approach:

Remember we first verify the following.

1. the sample is a simple random sample,
2. $np_0(1-p_0) \geq 10$ where n is the sample size, and
3. the sampled values are independent of each other (or $n \leq .05N$).

We will use the notation p_0 to mean the proportion assumed in the null hypothesis.

Step 1: Determine the null and alternative hypotheses. The hypotheses can be structured in one of three ways:

1. Equal versus *not* equal hypothesis (**two-tailed test**)

$$H_0: p = p_0$$

$$H_1: p \neq p_0$$

2. Equal versus less than (**left-tailed test**)

$$H_0: p = p_0$$

$$H_1: p < p_0$$

3. Equal versus greater than (**right-tailed test**)

$$H_0: p = p_0$$

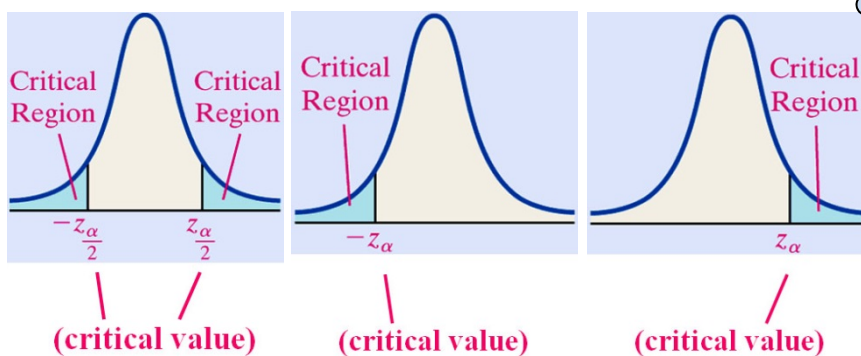
$$H_1: p > p_0$$

In example 1, our “2 standard deviations measure” was equivalent to $\alpha = .0228$.

Step 2: Select a level of significance, α , depending on the seriousness of making a Type I error.

Step 3: Compute the **test statistic** $z_0 = \frac{\hat{p} - p_0}{\sqrt{\frac{p_0(1-p_0)}{n}}}$. Again, notice we use p_0 in the standard

deviation on the bottom of this z -score. Use Table V to determine the critical value, based on α .



Here, we see the critical value in relation to α with two-tailed, left-tailed, and right-tailed tests.

Step 4: Compare the critical value with the test statistic. If z_0 is in the critical region, you reject the null hypothesis.

Step 5: State the conclusion.

expl 3: Perform this two-tailed test using the Classical Approach. Follow the steps outlined on the previous page. Also, draw normal curves for the distribution of \hat{p} and the standard normal distribution with the critical values and z_0 labeled. Be sure to state your result in a sentence.

$$H_0: p = 0.9$$

$$H_1: p \neq 0.9$$

$$n = 500; x = 440; \alpha = 0.05$$

The *P*-value Approach:

Here, we assume the statement in the null hypothesis is true and we find the probability of getting a sample statistic as extreme or more extreme than the one obtained. If this probability is small, **we reject the null hypothesis**.

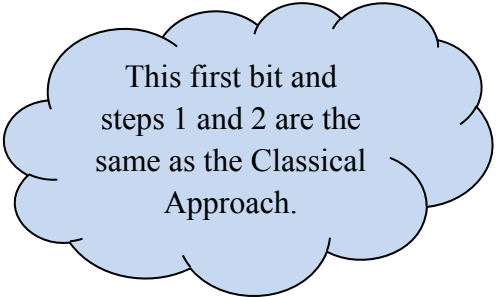
Definition: A *P*-value is the probability of observing a sample statistic as extreme or more extreme than the one observed under the assumption that the statement in the null hypothesis is true.

In practice, we compare this *P*-value to the level of significance, α , discussed in the previous section, to see if it is “small”.

Summary of the *P*-value Approach:

Remember we first verify the following.

1. the sample is a simple random sample,
2. $np_0(1 - p_0) \geq 10$ where n is the sample size, and
3. the sampled values are independent of each other (or $n \leq .05N$).



This first bit and steps 1 and 2 are the same as the Classical Approach.

Step 1: Determine the null and alternative hypotheses. The hypotheses can be structured in one of three ways:

1. Equal versus *not* equal hypothesis (**two-tailed test**)

$$H_0: p = p_0$$

$$H_1: p \neq p_0$$

3. Equal versus less than (**left-tailed test**)

$$H_0: p = p_0$$

$$H_1: p < p_0$$

4. Equal versus greater than (**right-tailed test**)

$$H_0: p = p_0$$

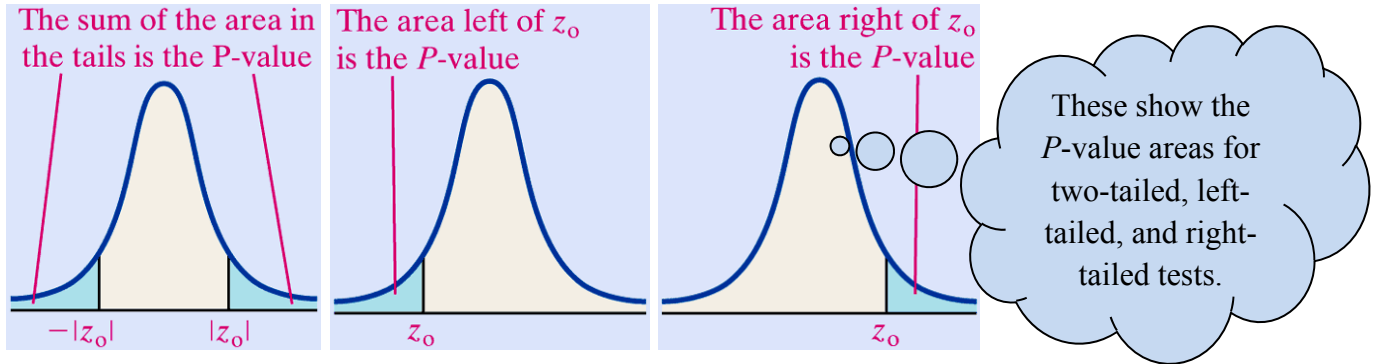
$$H_1: p > p_0$$

Step 2: Select a level of significance, α , depending on the seriousness of making a Type I error.

Steps 3 and 4 will differ (from the Classical Approach) when we use the *P*-value Approach. Step 5 will be the same...

Step 3: Compute the **test statistic** $z_0 = \frac{\hat{p} - p_0}{\sqrt{\frac{p_0(1-p_0)}{n}}}$. Again, notice we use p_0 in the standard

deviation on the bottom of this z -score. Use Table V to determine the area to the left of z_0 . The P -value is then figured, taking these pictures into account.



You could use technology to find the P -value instead of looking it up on the table.

Step 4: If the P -value $< \alpha$, reject the null hypothesis.

Step 5: State the conclusion.

expl 4: Perform this two-tailed test (from example 3) using the P -value Approach. Follow the steps outlined above. Also, draw the normal curve for the standard normal distribution with z_0 and the area that represents the P -value labeled. Be sure to state your result in a sentence.

$$H_0: p = 0.9$$

$$H_1: p \neq 0.9$$

$$n = 500; x = 440; \alpha = 0.05$$

expl 5: Suppose we are testing the hypothesis $H_0: p = 0.57$ versus $H_1: p < 0.57$ and we find the P -value to be 0.02. What is your conclusion if...

a.) ...it is important that we *not* make a Type I error so the level of significance is set at $\alpha = 0.01$? Explain.

b.) ...the level of significance is set at $\alpha = 0.05$? Explain.

expl 6: A friend claims to be able to read people's auras to determine a person's birth month by simply looking at them. To test this claim, you randomly select 500 people and he is able to guess correctly 50 birth months. Do you have evidence for his ability or his craziness? Follow these steps for the P -value Approach.

a.) By chance alone, he should be able to guess 1/12 (or 0.083) of the people's birth months. So let $H_0: p = .083$, which equates to your friend having no ability. What is the alternative hypothesis we should test?

b.) What is the value of \hat{p} ?

c.) Find the test statistic $z_0 = \frac{\hat{p} - p_0}{\sqrt{\frac{p_0(1-p_0)}{n}}}$ and the P -value.

d.) What is your conclusion at the 5% significance level?

