Chapter 8-3: Testing A Claim About a Proportion

Utilize sample information to test what the value of a population parameter may be want to answer questions about particular values for a population parameter based on information in a sample

We will conduct tests for:

- Population proportions, *p*
- Population means, μ

Example

About 10% of the human population is lefthanded. Suppose that a researcher speculates that artists are more likely to be left-handed than are other people in the general population. The researcher surveys 150 artists and finds that 24 of them are left-handed.

- Interested in making an inference about the proportion of a population
- Less interested in estimating the value of p, but are more interested in testing a hypothesis about its value

Method used to reach a decision is based on the rare-event concept

Define two hypotheses

Null hypothesis (H_0) ---defines the status quo to the party performing the experiment; or the hypothesis that is assumed to be true unless the data provide convincing evidence that it is false

Alternative hypothesis (H_1) ---that which will be accepted only if the data provide convincing evidence of its truth



For the left-handed artist example:

 H_0 : p = 0.1 or $p \le 0.1$ (10%); the proportion of left-handed artists is about the same as that for the general population

 $H_1: p > 0.1 (10\%)$ the proportion of lefthanded artists is greater than that for the general population.

How is this done?

- Reasonable to use a sample proportion, p̂, to make the inference just like we did when forming CI for p.
- The researcher will conclude that the proportion of left-handed artists is greater than 10% only when the sample proportion convincingly indicates that the population proportion exceeds 10%

3

- "Convincing" evidence in favor of the alternative hypothesis will exist when the value of p̂ exceeds 10% by an amount that cannot be readily attributed to <u>sampling variability</u>
- Compute a test statistic which is the *z*-value that measures the distance between the value of *p̂* and the value of *p* specified in the null hypothesis
- When the null hypothesis contains more than one value of p, as in H₀: p ≤ 0.1, use the value of p closest to the values specified in the alternative hypothesis
- The idea is that if the hypothesis that p = 0.1 can be rejected in favor of p > 0.1, then p ≤ 0.1 can certainly be rejected



4

Calculate z, under the assumption that H_0 is true:

$$z = \frac{\hat{p} - p_0}{\sigma_{p_0}} = \frac{\hat{p} - p_0}{\sqrt{p_0 \left(1 - p_0\right)/n}}$$
$$z = \frac{\left(\frac{24}{150}\right) - 0.10}{\sqrt{.1(1 - .1)/150}} = \frac{0.16 - 0.10}{\sqrt{0.10(0.90)/150}} = \frac{0.06}{0.0245} = 2.45$$

 $z = 2.45 \Rightarrow \hat{p}$ is 2.45 SDs above the value p = 0.10

How large must z be before the evidence is convincing and the null hypothesis can be rejected in favor of the alternative hypothesis?

5

The chance of observing \hat{p} more than 1.645 SDs above 0.10 is only .05---if in fact the true mean p is 0.10. (Where does this come from?)

If the sample proportion is more than 1.645 SDs above 0.10 either

- *H*₀ is true and a relatively rare event has occurred (probability = .05) or
- *H*₁ is true and the population proportion exceeds 0.10

Since we would most likely reject the notion that a rare event has occurred, we would reject the null hypothesis and conclude that the alternative hypothesis is true.

Here we are rejecting at the 5% level.



<u>*P*-value</u>—**observed significance level**; probability of observing a value as extreme (or more extreme) than the observed test statistic in the direction of the alternative hypothesis, *assuming that the null hypothesis is true*.

This can be expressed as a conditional probability:

P(A|B), where A is the event of observing a test statistic value as extreme as that observed and B is the event the null hypothesis is true

The smaller the *P*-value, the stronger the evidence is against the null hypothesis. In many fields, P < 0.05 is considered to be <u>statistically</u> <u>significant</u>

P < 0.01 often termed <u>highly statistically</u> <u>significant</u>

For the left-handed artist example, the *P*-value is equal to the probability under the standard normal curve beyond z = 2.45, which is 1 - 0.9929 = 0.0071.

7

What is the probability that this procedure will lead to an incorrect decision?

Recall that an incorrect decision, rejecting the null hypothesis when in fact it is true, is called a *Type I decision error*.

 α = P(Type I error)
= P(Rejecting the null hypothesis when in fact the null hypothesis is true)

For the left-handed artist example,

 $\alpha = P(z > 1.645 \text{ when in fact } p = 0.10) = .05$

The *rejection region* is the value of the test statistic for which we will reject the null hypothesis



8

Let's look at a modified problem—18 of 150 surveyed artists were left-handed.

$$z = \frac{\left(\frac{18}{150}\right) - 0.10}{\sqrt{.1(1 - .1)/150}} = \frac{0.12 - 0.10}{\sqrt{0.10(0.90)/150}} = \frac{0.02}{0.0245} = 0.82$$

Thus, the sample proportion lies 0.82 SDs above the hypothesized value p = 0.10.

What do we conclude now?

This value of z does not fall into the rejection region. Therefore, we *cannot* reject H_0 using $\alpha = .05$

P-value: 1 - 0.7939 = 0.2061

Should we accept H_0 and conclude that the proportion of left-handed artists is the same as the proportion of left-handed individuals in the population?

9

Recall a Type II Error---concluding that the null hypothesis is true when in fact it is false

 β is often difficult to determine precisely

Rather than make a decision to accept H_0 for which the probability of β is unknown, we avoid the potential of committing a Type II error by avoiding the conclusion that the null hypothesis is true

Rather, simply state that the sample evidence is insufficient to reject H_0 (or fail to reject H_0) at $\alpha = .05$



The left-handed artist problem is an example of a one-sided or one-tailed test because the alternative hypothesis specifies that p is strictly greater than a specified value

You can also pose *two-tailed or two-sided hypotheses*. These statistical tests are designed to show that the population parameter is either larger or smaller than some specified value.

For a specific α , the rejection region will vary depending on whether the test is oneor two-tailed

11

Rejection regions for common values of α

	Alternative Hypotheses		
α	Lower-tailed	Upper-tailed	Two-tailed
α=.10	<i>z</i> < -1.28	<i>z</i> >1.28	z < -1.645 or
			<i>z</i> >1.645
α=.05	<i>z</i> < -1.645	<i>z</i> >1.645	<i>z</i> < –1.96 or
			<i>z</i> > 1.96
α=.01	<i>z</i> < -2.33	<i>z</i> > 2.33	z < -2.58 or
			<i>z</i> > 2.58

For a one-tailed test, the *P*-value is equal to *the tail area* beyond *z* in the same direction of the alternative hypothesis

For a two-tailed test, the *P*-value is equal to *twice the tail area* beyond *z* in the same direction of the alternative hypothesis



Need to make sure that:

- 1. Have a random sample from the population of interest
- 2. Conditions for a binomial distribution are statisfied
- 3. The sample size is sufficiently large to ensure approximate normality.

Critical-Value Approach

- 1. State the null and alternative hypotheses.
- 2. Decide on the significance level α .
- 3. Verify necessary data conditions, and if met, compute the value of the test statistic.
- 4. Determine the critical value(s).
- 5. If the value of the test statistic falls in the rejection region, reject H_0 ; otherwise, do not reject H_0 .
- 6. Interpret the result of the hypothesis test--report the conclusion in the context of the situation.

*P***-value approach**

- 1. State the null and alternative hypotheses.
- 2. Decide on the significance level α .
- 3. Verify necessary data conditions, and if met, compute the value of the test statistic.
- 4. Determine the *P*-value.
- 5. If $P \le \alpha$, reject H_0 ; otherwise, do not reject H_0 .
- 6. Interpret the result of the hypothesis test--report the conclusion in the context of the situation.





13