



## The t-distribution

### 1. How $df$ changes the shape and critical values

Using two-tailed,  $\alpha = 0.05$  (so  $t_{\text{crit}} = t_{0.025, df}$  with  $df = n - 1$ ):

- $n = 3$  ( $df = 2$ ):  $t_{\text{crit}} \approx 4.303$
- $n = 5$  ( $df = 4$ ):  $t_{\text{crit}} \approx 2.776$
- $n = 10$  ( $df = 9$ ):  $t_{\text{crit}} \approx 2.262$
- $n = 20$  ( $df = 19$ ):  $t_{\text{crit}} \approx 2.093$
- $n = 50$  ( $df = 49$ ):  $t_{\text{crit}} \approx 2.009$

The normal reference is  $z_{0.025} \approx 1.960$ .

Within 0.05 of 1.96 occurs by  $n \approx 50$  ( $df = 49$ , 2.009 is 0.049 above 1.96).

Explanation: as  $df \rightarrow \infty$ , the  $t$  distribution  $\rightarrow N(0, 1)$ , so tails thin and  $t_{\text{crit}}$  decreases toward 1.96.

### 2. One-tailed vs two-tailed critical regions

With  $df = 14$  and  $\alpha = 0.05$ :

- Two-tailed:  $t_{0.025, 14} \approx 2.145$ , cut points at  $\pm 2.145$
- One-tailed (upper):  $t_{0.05, 14} \approx 1.761$ , single cut point at  $+1.761$

For  $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$  vs  $H_1 : \mu > \mu_0$ , the one-tailed threshold  $t_{0.05, 14}$  is relevant because only the upper tail provides evidence against  $H_0$ .

In both cases, the shaded area equals  $\alpha$ :

- two-tailed shades two symmetric regions each of area  $\alpha/2$ ;
- one-tailed shades a single upper tail of area  $\alpha$ .

## Effect Size, sample size, and power

### 1. Same effect size, different $n$ (mapping $t$ , $n$ , and $\hat{d}$ )

- With  $t = 1.6$  and  $n = 16$ ,  $\hat{d} = t/\sqrt{n} = 1.6/4 = 0.40$ . The power at  $n = 16$  for  $\hat{d} \approx 0.40$  and  $\alpha = 0.05$  will be modest (typically well below 0.80).
- Keeping  $\hat{d}$  fixed at 0.40 and raising  $n$  to 64 requires  $t = \hat{d}\sqrt{n} = 0.40 \times 8 = 3.2$ . The app will show the same  $\hat{d}$  but a higher power at  $n = 64$ .
- As  $n$  increases while the underlying effect stays fixed, the standard error shrinks:  $SE = s/\sqrt{n}$ .

The test statistic is  $t = \frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{SE}$ , so a smaller SE makes  $|t|$  larger on average. For a fixed  $\alpha$ , the critical cutoff (e.g.,  $t_{\alpha/2, df}$  for a two-sided test) is essentially fixed, so larger typical  $|t|$  increases the chance that  $|t| > t_{\alpha/2, df}$ . Therefore, bigger  $n \Rightarrow$  less sampling noise  $\Rightarrow$  tighter estimates  $\Rightarrow$  higher power.

## 2. Planning with a SESOI and $\alpha$ sensitivity

- For  $t = 2.0$  and  $n = 30$ ,  $\hat{d} = t/\sqrt{n} \approx 2.0/\sqrt{30} \approx 0.37$ . The app will report the power at  $n = 30$  using this  $\hat{d}$  (typically moderate at  $\alpha = 0.05$ ).
- Turning on the SESOI with  $d = 0.5$  switches the curve to a fixed target effect. The orange marker shows the  $n$  giving 80% power at  $\alpha = 0.05$ ; for  $d = 0.5$  this is typically in the few-dozen range for a one-sample  $t$ -test (on the order of the 30s).
- Increasing  $\alpha$  to 0.10 lowers the critical threshold and reduces the required  $n$  for a given power; decreasing  $\alpha$  to 0.01 raises the threshold and increases the required  $n$ . Formally, stricter  $\alpha$  increases the critical  $t$  value, so a larger  $n$  is needed for the same probability of exceeding it under the alternative.

## 3. Was the study well powered? Post-hoc check and replication planning

- With  $t = 2.1$  and  $n = 25$ ,  $\hat{d} = 2.1/\sqrt{25} = 2.1/5 = 0.42$ . The app will show the power at  $n = 25$  for  $\hat{d} \approx 0.42$  and  $\alpha = 0.05$ ; this is typically only moderate, not comfortably high.
- For replication planning, turn on SESOI and choose the closest option to  $\hat{d}$  (e.g.,  $d = 0.5$ ). The orange marker will give the  $n$  needed for 80% power at the chosen  $\alpha$ ; expect a sample size in the few-dozen range for  $d = 0.5$  at  $\alpha = 0.05$ .
- A significant result with low power can be fragile because small shifts in sampling may miss the effect and estimates are noisier. Picking a SESOI (a target  $d$  tied to practical importance) and planning for 80% power helps ensure a replication has adequate sensitivity to detect a meaningfully sized effect.

### Summarising Conclusions

- Power is the probability your test will detect a real effect (reject  $H_0$  when the effect truly exists).
- The curve fixes an effect size  $d$  and shows how power increases with  $n$ .
- If you base  $d$  on your observed test ( $\hat{d} = t/\sqrt{n}$ ), the curve answers: "If the effect really was the size we observed, how likely would the test be to detect that effect at other sample sizes  $n$ ?"
- If you base  $d$  on a meaningful minimum (SESOI), the curve answers: "How large should  $n$  be to reliably detect an effect that actually matters?"
- The 0.80 (80%) line is a convention (not a law). Many fields use it as a planning minimum; higher power (e.g., 90%) is desirable when stakes are high.
- Rule of thumb: because  $t = d\sqrt{n}$ , halving  $d$  requires about 4× the sample size to keep power roughly the same.

### Why do many plots show an 80% power line?

- 80% power means choosing  $\beta = 0.20$  (so power =  $1 - \beta = 0.80$ ). This is a planning convention, not a mathematical law.
- The convention became common through methodological guidance (e.g., Cohen's power analysis texts) and is echoed in many applied fields.
- In higher-stakes settings (e.g., confirmatory clinical trials), targets of 80–90% power are typical; 90