# Lecture 3

Introduction to hypothesis testing: *t*-tests

假设检验的简介

## Comparing group means with t-tests

- We've seen that when variables show a bell-shaped distribution, the normal curve can be used to calculate cumulative probabilities of confidence intervals
- t-tests extend the logic to comparisons between group means
  - it calculates *probabilities of differences* in group means 计算各组均值差异的概率

Three scenarios

#### 单样本T检验

- One-sample t-test: does a sample mean differ from a reference value?
  - Is daily caloric intake of children from a village significantly below the WHO recommended value?
- Two sample t-tests: do sample means differ? 独立样本T检验(两个样本)
  - Are !Kung men taller than !Kung women?
- Paired t-test: are two sets of measurements from the same individuals different?
  - Did blood pressure in patients differ before and after a new treatment was introduced? (the two samples are from the same patients)





# Why test for differences?

- If we want to know whether adult men are taller than adult women in the UK, we can:
- 1) Measure all ~20 million adult men and 20 million women, and compare their mean heights
  - Descriptive statistics; no test is required

or

- 2) You can take a sample of 100 men and a sample of 100 women, and compare their means
  - Now you need to test whether the difference is significant
  - What if the difference does not represent true differences, but was caused by sampling 200 non-representative people?
- A *t*-test is a way of testing whether a difference between two values is "significant" (to a conventional degree; for example, 95%)



### t-test: test statistic t

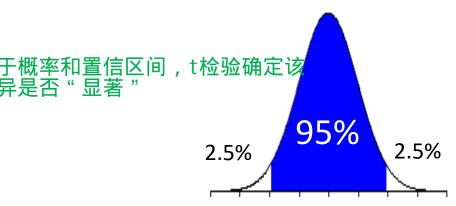
• *t*-test is based on the *t*-statistic, a '*t*-score' similar to a *z*-score:

t是两个值之间的sd,是差异化的z分数

$$t = \frac{x - \mu}{sem}$$

- *t* is the standardised difference between two values; it is the z-score of difference
  - based on this probability and confidence intervals, t-test establishes whether this difference is 'significant' (i.e. 'too different')
    - = whether the are too different to be "the same" or from the same population
    - = whether the test value x and mean  $\mu$  are significantly different from each other

他们是否差异太大而不能"相同"或来自同一群体测试值x和平均值山之间是否有显著差异



## Standard error 标准误差

- An individual point (my height) has a standard deviation relative to a mean value (mean hight)
  - I deviate from mean value 样本值偏离平均值
- But a sample mean has an error relative to another value
  - a mean height of 180cm from a sample may be a wrong estimate of true mean of the UK population another population
  - the error may be caused by sample size (too small) etc. 误差可能由样本量(太小等)引起
- sem is the standard error of the mean sem是平均值的标准误差
  - measure of variation taking into account *sample size*
  - It tells you how much variation you expect from a sample mean if the trait has a given standard deviation and sample has a size n

$$sem = \sigma / \sqrt{n-1}$$



标准化t值是指测试值偏离平均值的标准误差

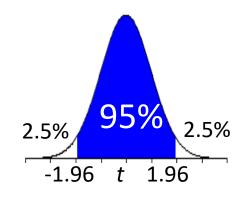
- Standardised t-value is how many standard errors the test value deviates from the mean
  - Not how many **standard deviations** (as we calculated n Lecture 2

2.5%

# t-test: null hypothesis H<sub>0</sub>

- t-test defines a null hypothesis ( $H_o$ ): 如果t分数在差异为95%的置信区间中
  - *If t*-score is within in the 95% confidence interval of differences:
  - = difference is not large enough (not 'rare' or unexpected enough)
  - = difference is not statistically significant
  - =difference is not 'real' but is just a random outcome from sampling

差异不够大 差异没有统计学意义 差异不真实,只是随机抽样结果



p>0.05表示在95%CI内,接收零假设,无差异p<0.05表示超出95%CI,拒绝零假设,接收备择假设

# t-test: P values t值和p值——对应,可以查表得到

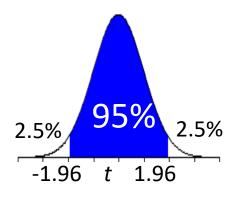
#### 零假设是保守的,指组均值没有差异

- Null hypothesis H<sub>0</sub> is *conservative*: there is NO difference in group means
  - If P>0.05 (=probability of difference > 5%; inside 95% CI): null hypothesis is accepted: no difference
  - If P<0.05 (=probability of difference < 5%; outside the 95% CI): null hypothesis is rejected and alternative hypothesis is accepted
    - there is a significant difference in means
- Since 95% CI is defined by t-scores between -1.96 and 1.96, for a significant difference, you need at least:
  - 至少需要 • t < -1.96
  - or t > 1.96

当样本较小时这些值会更高

Those values will be higher when samples are small

(note: always include t-values when reporting test results, and not only Pvalues)



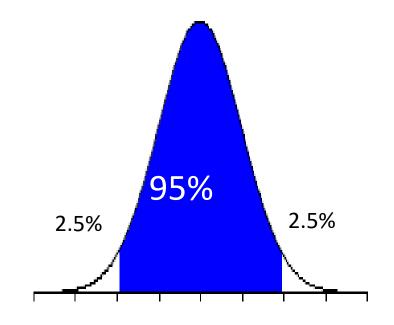
# t-test: significance level α

- A 95% CI implies that only 5% of differences between mean and test values are considered 'significant'
  - Significance level of test, or α, is therefore 5%=0.05 显著性水平是0.05
  - A difference is significant if its probability, or P value, is lower than  $\alpha$  如果其概率或p值低于 ,则差异显著

### Significant difference: P value $< \alpha$

如果进行t-test结果p=0.05,则我们"95%确定"差异是显著的

- If I run a t-test and result is P=0.05, we are "95% sure" difference is significant (because difference is (just) within a 95% CI)
  - If P=0.003, we are "99.7% sure" difference is significant
    - P < 0.05; that's enough (we want to be at least 95% sure)</li>
  - If P=0.08, we are only "92% sure" difference is significant
    - P =0.08 would only be outside a 92% CI; it is still inside a 95% CI
    - 92% sure is not enough: we want to be at least 95% sure; difference is not significant or 'real'
       92%不够,差异不显著或者不真实



# 1) One-sample *t*-test in *R*

Example: Based on our census, can we say that height of !Kung women is significantly different from 155 cm?

• or is the difference just by chance, i.e. mean height is low due to small sample etc?

- Sample size= 181 adult female heights from 264 cases excluding NAs
- mean=149.5cm, sd=5.12
- test value: 155 cm

## One-sample t-test in R

> t.test(kaf\$height, mu=155)

One Sample t-test

data: kaf\$height

t = -14.39, df = 180, p-value < 2.2e-16

alternative hypothesis: true mean is not equal to 155

95 percent confidence interval:

148.7721 150.2741

sample estimates: 结果是拒绝零假设,接收备择假设

mean of x

149.5231

### Syntax is very simple

mu= test value

#### mu是测试值,给定的均值

- t = -14.39 低于平均值超过14个标准误差
  - very small t value! Over 14 standard errors below the mean 表明差异非常显著
  - suggests that difference is significant
- P=2.2e-16 is R's way of saying 'almost zero' (P<0.05: significant difference) 几乎为0</li>

#### 有95%的把握平均身高在148到150之间

- 95% CI: we are 95% sure that mean height of !Kung adult females is between 148.77 and 150.27
  - 155cm is outside CI; significant difference
  - if test value is within CI, no difference

155在CI之外,显著差异,如果值在CI内则无差异

#### Outcome:

reject null hypothesis, accept alternative
 hypothesis = true mean is not equal to 155 cm

如果对95%有信心,则平均值明显低于155 mean height of !Kung women is significantly under 155cm, if 95% confidence in your result is enough

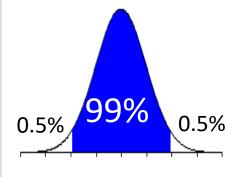
## 99% CI

### 改变显著性水平,加上conf.int

• To change significance level to  $\alpha$ =0.01, add *conf.int=0.99* 

```
> t.test(kaf$height, mu=155, conf.level=0.99)
One Sample t-test

data: kaf$height
t = -14.39, df = 180, p-value < 2.2e-16
alternative hypothesis: true mean is not equal to 155
99 percent confidence interval:
148.5322 150.5139
sample estimates:
mean of x
149.5231
```



难以证明显著差异

- Basic stats are the same (t, P), but 99% CI is wider; harder to demonstrate significant difference
- Still: reject null hypothesis
- Now you're '99% sure' that !Kung adult female height differs from 155cm

### **Exercises:**

Is the **mean weight** of !Kung adult females significantly different from 40kg?

- a) Is the null hypothesis accepted or rejected? Why?
- b) Interpret the 95% CI

Re-run the test with a 99% CI c) is the null hypothesis accepted or rejected? Why?

#### 双样本t检验

# 2) Two-sample *t*-test

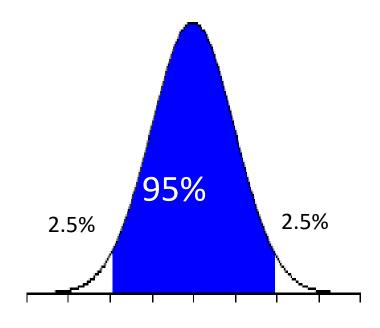
- Second, you may also want to test whether two samples are significantly different
- Westernised European men are typically heavier than women: is this also true for the !Kung?
- Test procedure is similar: t-statistic is now the difference between the means of the two compared groups
- If male height is  $\mu_1$  and female height is  $\mu_2$ ,

$$t = \frac{\mu_1 - \mu_2}{sedm}$$

- Why sedm (=standard error of the difference of means)?
  - instead of one *sem*, now we have two (one from each group); we use *sedm* a combination of both

$$sedm = \sqrt{sem_1^2 + sem_2^2}$$





# Two-sample *t*-test in *R*

 Our file has one column for weight and one for sex; first possible syntax is:

```
> t.test(kc$weight ~ kc$sex)
Welch Two Sample t-test
data: kc$weight by kc$sex
t = 4.9926, df = 584.101, p-value = 7.874e-07
alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0
95 percent confidence interval:
3.657924 8.402225
sample estimates:
mean in group man mean in group woman
38.91039
32.88031
```

 ps. samples include children too, hence the different mean height values

### Notice that R uses alphabetical or numerical ordering for groups

- KungCensus\$weight variable: 'man' before 'woman'
- Welch test is the t-test that calculates sedm as we did in previous slide

#### 拒绝零假设(平均体重无差异)

- *t* > 1.96; P<0.05:
  - reject null hypothesis (=no difference in mean weights)
  - accept alternative hypothesis (=mean weights differ)

#### 自由度看起来很奇怪,也是用均值

 Degrees of freedom look weird; they're calculated using means too

#### 均值差,不包括0

- 95% Cl is for difference of means, and excludes zero
  - if it excludes zero, difference cannot be zero! 如果包括0,则差值不能为0
  - => difference is significant

### Exercises:

- a) Run the same two-sample test with a 99% CI; do weight in men and women differ? Why?
- b) Run the test differently by creating two separate files for women and men, and then comparing their weights with:
- > t.test(variable 1, variable 2)

(hint: what is variable 1? And variable 2?

#### 配对T检验

# 3) Paired *t*-test

#### 两个测试值不独立

- A paired test is used when the two compared measurements are not independent
  - for example, two paired measurements from the same individual
  - typically, comparison between 'before' and 'after'

### Example

- The file *intake* has data on pre- and post-menstrual calorie consumption in 11 women; is there a difference?
- Select Packages tab (bottom right panel)
- Install and then run library ISwR (by ticking box)
- Enter *intake* to see *intake* file



## Paired *t*-test

- It is *incorrect* to run a two-sample test in this case, because the two samples are not independent; *pre* and *post* measurements taken from the same individual (i.e. paired)
- But you can define the difference *d* as a new variable

$$d = post - pre$$

- i.e., we are no longer taking two measurements from each person: we are measuring only one variable:
  - the variation (or 'delta') in calorie consumption for the same individual before and after

Now we just test whether *d* is significantly different from zero, as in a one-sample test

Paired t-test is thus a one-sample t-test with test value=0

To run a paired t-test: just add paired=T 加上这个参数

```
> t.test(intake$post, intake$pre, paired=T)

Paired t-test

data: intake$post and intake$pre
t = -11.941, df = 10, p-value = 3.059e-07
alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0
95 percent confidence interval:
-1566.838 -1074.072
sample estimates:
mean of the differences
-1320.455
```

- (now group order is determined as 'post', then 'pre') 现在的顺序是先post再pre
- Result: significant difference between the groups 结果:两组之间有显著差异
- This makes sense: information that measurements are paired is very relevant to the test
  - intake dataset: every women reduces calorie consumption from pre to post
  - this information is lost in a two-sample *t*-test, which first calculates means for *post* and pre, and then calculates their difference

### **Exercises:**

Run the same test with a 99% CI

- a) What happens to P value?
- b) Is there a significant difference?

Now run a two-sample t-test on *pre* and *post* 

- c) With 95% CI, is there a significant difference
- d) With a 99% CI, is there a significant difference?

What do you conclude about the differences between two-sample and paired sample tests in this case?

### One- vs. two-tailed t-tests PROMOBER

- All *t*-tests we've run so far are *two-tailed* because the alternative hypothesis is that 'mean is *different* from *x*' (i.e. either too large or too small)
  - Only after you show they are different is that you can tell whether test value is smaller or larger than reference value

只有在证明不同之后,才能知道测试值是小于还是大于参考值

- But sometimes you may want to test only whether a mean is *smaller than* or *greater than* a value; in 在某些情况下,这是唯一选择 some cases, this is the only option!
  - suppose you measure the height of a sample of British girls aged 15, and another sample of girls aged 16.
  - the question was: are girls still growing between ages 15 and 16?

因为所有的备择假设是 "与均值不同"(大大或大小)

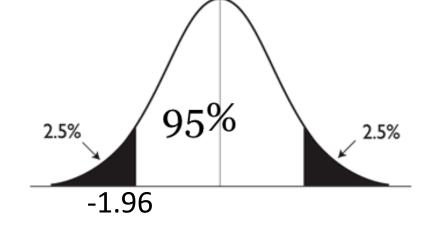
- In this case, you can run a **one-tailed** *t*-test comparing data on heights at age 15 and 16
  - the alternative hypothesis is now more specific: mean height at age 16 is GREATER THAN (not just different from) mean height at age 15 (justification: 15-year-old girls may not grow, but they don't shrink!)

15岁可能不会长,但不会萎缩

- In this case, for a 95% CI, the 'rare' 5% are placed one side of the curve only!!!

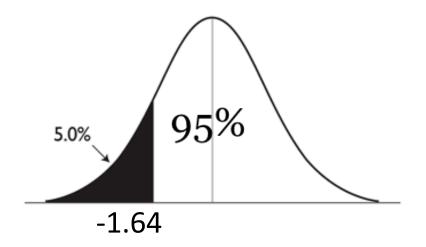
   在这种情况下,对于95%CI," 罕见"的5%仅位于曲线的一侧
- If you want to run one-tailed –tests, add arguments alt='g' for greater than, or alt='l' for less than alt='l' for less than

- There are important differences between the one- and two-tailed tests
- In a 95% CI, a two-tailed test splits the extreme 5% into two 2.5% parts



#### 双侧将5%平分在两边,单侧放在一边

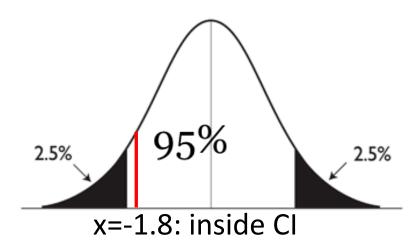
- But the one-tailed test places the whole 5% on one side only, and therefore creates a larger, more 'inclusive' single tail
  - The t-value corresponding to cumulative probability 0.05 is now t=-1.64

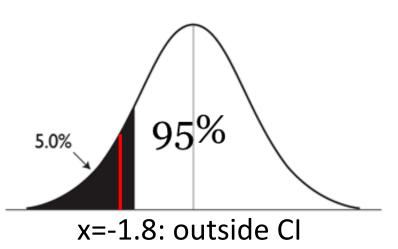


- This means there is a temptation to cheat and switch from two-tailed (and a non-significant result)...
- ...to a one-tailed test (and a significant difference between means)

#### t=-1.8时双侧没有不同,单侧有显著差异

 Example: imagine my t value is t=-1.8; this is inside a twotailed 95% CI (not different) but outside a one-tailed 95% CI (significantly different)

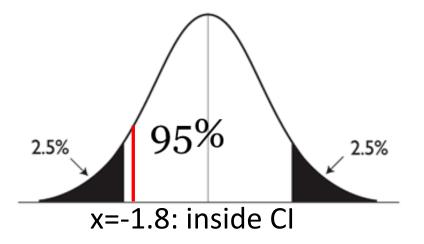


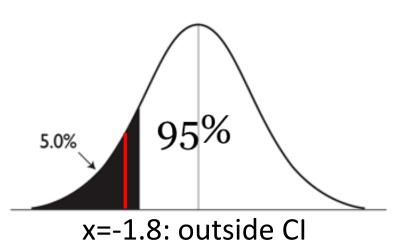


- It is wrong to run a one-tailed test just because it is easier to prove that groups are different
- Example: to test for differences between male and female height, you should always run a two-tailed test; you shouldn't argue that "males are always taller"

#### notes:

- it is hard to draw the line between 'young girl don't shrink' ('ok') and 'men are always taller' ('cheating'); use commonsense 用常识
- one-tailed tests are much more rarely used than two-tailed tests





## CONCIUSIONS 置信区间和所有t检验都假设正态分布

- Confidence intervals and all t-tests assume a normal distribution
  - That's why you do not *prove* differences; you compare groups and give an estimate of the *probability* that they are different or similar

Important: 目前的趋势是在报告的简介结果中提供p值,置信区间和t值

 Current trend is to provide confidence intervals and t-values in addition to P values when reporting results of tests in general (not just t-tests)

零假设总是假设两个被比较的均值没有不同

- Null hypothesis is always that the two compared means are *not* different (i.e. one value is a relatively frequent value around the other mean)
- It is easy to interpret t-tests: for a confidence level of 95%, if P<0.05 then difference is statistically significant (groups differ); if P>0.05, there is no statistically significant difference
  - Or: if confidence interval includes 0, difference is not significant

如果置信区间包括0,差异不显著

One-tailed t-tests are less commonly used (they are harder to justify)

单侧检验不太常用(很难证明合理性)

### Exercises: Library(LSWR)

File *kfm* (ISwR library)

- a) File has data on sex and weight of babies; is weight in boys and girls significantly different?
- b) Is breast milk intake (variable *dl.milk*) significantly different in boys and girls?

Longevity in men and women (file *humanlongevity*)

- c) We want to compare longevity in women and men; look at the data in file human longevity. Which t-test do we need to run? 每一年的年份是相同的,所以用pai red
- d) Is there a significant difference between men and women in longevity?

```
t. test(kfm$weight ~ kfm$sex)
t. test(kfm$dl.milk ~ kfm$sex)
```

t. test(humanlongevity\$longevity.women, humanlongevity\$longevity.men, paired = T)