Hypothesis Testing with the *t*-distribution

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The Null Distribution of a Single Mean

Consider the null hypothesis H_0 : $\mu = \mu_0$, and the following CLT result:

$$\bar{x} \sim N(\mu, \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}})$$

- Recall that this approximation is only accurate when σ , the population standard deviation of the variable X, is known
- ▶ Otherwise replacing σ with s, the sample standard deviation, introduces additional uncertainty due to the variability in how accurately s estimates σ

The One-sample *t*-test

Assuming for a minute that we know σ (something that is never true in practice), we could use the CLT result to derive a z-test involving the test statistic:

$$z = rac{ar{x} - \mu_0}{\sigma / \sqrt{n}}$$

- If σ is estimated by s, William Gosset derived the t-distribution to properly account for the extra variation introduced by estimating σ
- ► This gives rise to the *t*-test, which uses the following *test statistic*:

$$t = rac{ar{x} - \mu_0}{s / \sqrt{n}}$$

Assuming $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$ is true, the test statistic, t, follows a t-distribution with df = n - 1

Practice - z-test vs. t-test

- Radon is a toxic gas and the second leading cause of lung cancer, it is particularly prevalent in the midwest in states including lowa
- ► The EPA has a federal action limit of 4 pCi/L, but they advise residents to take action if average levels higher than 0.4 pCi/L are observed
- ▶ In the basement of an lowa home, radon levels are tested on 8 randomly selected dates over the course a month, the measurements are:

$$\{.2, .7, .3, .9, .5, .3, .7, .6\}$$

- 1. Assuming $\sigma = 0.243$ is known, use a z-test to evaluate whether the average radon level is higher than 0.4
- 2. Using s to estimate σ , use a t-test to evaluate whether the average radon level is higher than 0.4
- 3. How do the p-values from these tests compare?

- 1. H_0 : $\mu = 0.4$ and H_A : $\mu > 0.4$; $z = \frac{0.525 0.4}{0.243/\sqrt{8}} = 1.455$; the one-sided *p*-value (using N(0,1)) is 0.073
- 2. $H_0: \mu=0.4$ and $H_A: \mu>0.4$; $t=\frac{0.525-0.4}{0.243/\sqrt{8}}=1.455$; the one-sided p-value (using t(df = 7)) is 0.094
- 3. The t-test has a larger p-value because the uncertainty introduced by estimating σ increases the variability of possible test statistics we might encounter when H_0 is true.

Conditions for the *t*-test

- ▶ In practice, we will *never* use the *z*-test when testing a single mean
 - ▶ In this situation, we'll mostly use the *t*-test; however, the *t*-test is based upon normality
- ► The *t*-test requires a normally distributed population, or a sample size of $n \ge 30$
 - When these conditions aren't met, we should prefer a randomization test

Practice - t-test vs. Randomization Test

The "Home Prices - Canton" dataset in StatKey (under Randomization Test for a Mean) displays the sale prices of a random sample of 10 homes in Canton, NY

- Comparing the sample mean and median, do you believe the distribution of sale prices in the population (all homes in Canton, NY) is approximately normally distributed?
- 2. Use a randomization test to determine whether the mean home price in Canton *is lower* than 200k
- 3. Use a *t*-test to determine whether the mean home price in Canton *is lower* than 200k
- 4. How do the results of these tests compare?

- 1. The mean is much larger than the median, so the data are likely from a right-skewed population
- 2. The one-sided p-value is approximately 0.02 (using the randomization distribution)
- 3. Here $t = \frac{146.8 200}{94.998/\sqrt{10}} = -1.77$; leading to a one-sided *p*-value of 0.055
- 4. These results are very different because the assumptions of the *t*-test are not met

The Two-sample *t*-test

Recall that for a difference in means, the CLT suggests the following normal approximation:

$$ar{x}_1 - ar{x}_2 \sim N igg(\mu_1 - \mu_2, \sqrt{rac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + rac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}} igg)$$

- This approximation can be used when testing the hypothesis: $H_0: \mu_1 \mu_2 = 0$
- ▶ If σ_1 and σ_2 are estimated from the sample, the test uses a t-distribution with $df = \min(n_1 1, n_2 1)$
 - ► This approach to determining *df* is conservative, software will use the exact value

Practice - Two-sample t-test

- After swimming several world records were broken at the 2008 Olympics, controversy arose regarding whether new swimsuit designs provided an unfair advantage
- ▶ In 2010, new international rules were created that regulated swimsuit coverage and material, but does a certain swimsuit really make a swimmer faster?
- ► The wetsuits data (available on the course website) contains 1500m swim velocities of 12 competitive swimmers with and without a wetsuit
- Perform a two-sample t-test on swim velocities in the wetsuits data to evaluate whether wearing a wetsuit results in a higher swim velocity than not wearing a wetsuit. You should construct your test statistic by hand, but use Minitab to find the sample means and standard deviations.

$$H_0: \mu_{wetsuit} = \mu_{noWetsuit}$$
 vs. $H_A: \mu_{wetsuit} > \mu_{noWetsuit}$ We observed $\bar{x}_{wetsuit} - \bar{x}_{noWetsuit} = 1.51 - 1.43 = 0.08$ Then, $t = \frac{0.08 - 0}{\sqrt{.14^2/12 + .12^2/12}} = \frac{.08}{.053} = 1.5$

Using a t-distribution with df=11, this test statistic leads to a one-sided p-value of 0.081; thus we conclude that there is marginal evidence that wetsuit is associated with higher swim velocity, but we might not be fully convinced.

Paired Designs

- ► The way in which the wetsuit data were collected is special, the researchers used a **paired design**
- Paired designs offer a statistical advantage because each subject can serve as their own control, block out variability that is attributable to individual differences unrelated to the wetsuit
 - ► That is, by analyzing within subject change we eliminate a lot of variation in swim velocities
- ► We can further understand the statistical advantage of a paired design by comparing standard errors:

$$\sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1}} < \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1} + \frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}} < \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_1^2}{n_1}} + \sqrt{\frac{\sigma_2^2}{n_2}}$$

A single variable (the paired difference) has less variability than the difference in two variables, and much less variability than the two variables by themselves

The Paired t-test

The **paired t-test** is actually just a one-sample *t*-test done on the paired differences:

$$t = rac{ar{x}_d - \mu_0}{s_d / \sqrt{n_{pairs}}}$$

- $ightharpoonup \bar{x}_d$ is the sample average of the paired differences
- μ_d is the average paired difference specified in the null hypothesis (typically zero)
- s_d is the sample standard deviation of the paired difference
- \triangleright n_{pairs} is the number of pairs in the sample
- ▶ This test statistic follows a *t*-distribution with $df = n_{pairs} 1$

Practice - Paired t-test

For the Wetsuits data, use Minitab to:

- 1. Create a new column containing the paired differences. Then use this column and the "1-sample t . . . " menu to evaluate whether swim velocities are faster wearing a wetsuit
- 2. Use the "Paired t . . . " menu to conduct a paired *t*-test on the original variables "Wetsuit" and "NoWetsuit" evaluating whether swim velocities are faster wearing a wetsuit
- 3. Recall that the two-sample *t*-test resulted in a one-sided *p*-value of 0.081, compare this with the results of the paired *t*-test

- 1. On Minitab
- 2. H_0 : $\mu_d = 0$, t = 12.3, p-value is approximately zero
- 3. The paired test leads to a much smaller p-value, this is because between subject differences are accounted for by the design of the study (leading to a much more precise estimate of the difference that is attributable to the wetsuit)

Reminder - Assumptions for the *t*-test

- ► Recall that the *t*-distribution was derived assuming a normally distributed population
- When the sample size is large, we don't need to worry about this because the sampling distribution of \bar{x} approaches normality
- ▶ When the sample size is small, we must check whether it is reasonable to assume the data come from a normal distribution
- ▶ If $n_1 < 30$ or $n_2 < 30$, or if there is clear skew in our sample(s), we should prefer a randomization test

Conclusion

Right now you should...

- 1. Be able to perform *t*-tests in one and two sample settings
- 2. Know the assumptions involved with these approaches
- 3. Understand why the t-distribution is necessary when σ is estimated
- 4. Know when to conduct a paired *t*-test, and the advantage it provides over a two-sample *t*-test

These notes cover parts of Ch 6 from the textbook, I encourage you to read through the chapter and its examples