## 1 Student's t distribution and t-tests

Consider the following hypothesis testing problem:

$$H_0: x_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu_0, \sigma^2), \ i = 1, \dots, n$$
  
 $H_1: x_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2), \ i = 1, \dots, n, \ \mu > \mu_0 \text{ but otherwise unknown}$ 

We have discussed how to handle this test when  $\sigma^2$  is known. But how should we proceed if it is unknown?

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One option is the GLRT, discussed above. However, (a) we must estimate  $\mu$  and (b) Wilk's theorem only tells us that the test statistic corresponding to maximum likelihood estimates of  $\sigma^2$  and  $\mu$  is asymptotically chi-squared. For small n, then, it can be difficult to set a threshold to achieve a desired probability of false positives or type I error.

As alternative is the celebrated t-test. Specifically, let

$$\overline{x} := \frac{1}{n} \sum_{i=1}^{n} x_i$$

and note that under  $H_0$ ,  $\overline{x} \sim \mathcal{N}(\mu_0, \sigma^2/n)$ . So if we knew  $\sigma^2$ , we could compute the statistic  $\frac{\overline{x}-\mu_0}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \sim \mathcal{N}(0,1)$  and set a threshold as discussed in previous units. Since we do not know  $\sigma^2$ , we can estimate it from our data; specifically, let  $s_n := \sqrt{\frac{1}{n-1} \sum_{i=1}^n (x_i - \overline{x})^2}$  be the sample standard deviation. Then  $s/\sqrt{n}$  is called the standard error of the mean and is an estimate of  $\sigma/\sqrt{n}$ . This leads us to the t-statistic:

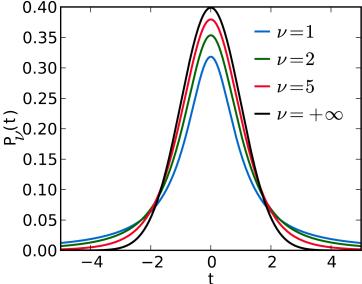
$$t^* = \frac{\overline{x} - \mu_0}{s/\sqrt{n}}.$$

Ultimately we will perform our hypothesis test by thresholding  $t^*$ , and to set a threshold guaranteed to yield a certain probability of false positives or type I error we must undertand the distribution of  $t^*$ .

In 1908, Guinness statistician William Gosset published a paper characterizing this distribution under the pseudonym "Student", and subsequently the distribution has been dubbed Student's t-distribution. It is parameterized by  $\nu$ , the number of degrees of freedom in the distribution, and takes the form

$$p_{\nu}(t) = \frac{\Gamma(\frac{\nu+1}{2})}{\sqrt{\nu\pi}\Gamma(\frac{\nu}{2})} (1 + \frac{t^2}{\nu})^{-\frac{\nu+1}{2}}.$$

The test statistic  $t^*$  above is drawn from the t-distribution with  $\nu = n - 1$  degrees of freedom.



As  $\nu \to \infty$ ,  $p_{\nu}(t) \to \mathcal{N}(0,1)$ . For smaller  $\nu$  corresponding to smaller sample sizes, though, the t-distribution has heavier tails, and its tail probabilities can be used to determine appropriate thresholds for t-statistics.

## 1.1 Two-sample t-tests

In some settings we observe two different sets of data, data  $x_1, \ldots, x_{n_x}$  and  $y_1, \ldots, y_{n_y}$  and which to perform a test, say to see if they are drawn from distributions with the same mean. For instance,

$$H_0: x_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu_0, \sigma_x^2), i = 1, \dots, n_x$$
  
$$y_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu_0, \sigma_y^2), i = 1, \dots, n_y.$$

A common approach is to consider a test statistic that is a function of  $\overline{x} - \overline{y}$ , as under the null hypothesis this difference will have zero mean. We will construct and threshold a t-statistic. This is called a two-sample t-test.

How should we compute a t-statistic in such a case? Generally we use the formula

$$t^* = \frac{\overline{x} - \overline{y}}{\text{s.e.}}$$

where s.e. is the standard error of the mean, as before. How should this standard error be computed? There are two possibilities:

1. We assume the two distributions have equal variance ( $\sigma := \sigma_x = \sigma_y$ ). In this case,  $\overline{x} - \overline{y} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma^2/n_x + \sigma^2/n_y)$ , and we estimate  $\sigma^2$  via

$$s^{2} = \frac{\sum_{i=1}^{n_{x}} (x_{i} - \overline{x})^{2} + \sum_{i=1}^{n_{y}} (y_{i} - \overline{y})^{2}}{n_{x} + n_{y} - 2}$$

and then s.e.  $=\sqrt{s^2(1/n_x+1/n_y)}$ . The resulting t-statistic has  $\nu=n_x+n_y-2$  degrees of freedom.

2. We do NOT assume the two distributions have equal variance. In this case,  $\overline{x} - \overline{y} \sim \mathcal{N}(0, \sigma_x^2/n_x + \sigma_y^2/n_y)$ . We estimate  $\sigma_x^2$  via

$$s_x^2 = \frac{1}{n_x - 1} \sum_{i=1}^{n_x} (x_i - \overline{x})^2$$

and similarly for  $\sigma_y^2$ . Then the standard error is s.e.  $=\sqrt{s_x^2/n_x+s_y^2/n_y}$ . The distribution of the resulting statistic is approximately a t-distribution with

$$\nu = \frac{(s_x^2/n_x + s_y^2/n_y)^2}{(s_x^2/n_x)^2/(n_x - 1) + (s_y^2/n_y)^2/(n_y - 1)}$$

degrees of freedom. (This is known as the Welch-Satterthwaite equation.)

# 2 p-values

So far we have considered making decisions or performing hypothesis testing by computing a test statistic and thresholding it. Our aim is the answer the key question

Note: Does our data provide enough evidence for us to reject the null hypothesis  $H_0$ ?

We saw that we can choose a threshold to minimize the probability of error or probability of false positives or other measures of error. However, the result of such a test is always a binary decision  $(H_0 \text{ or } H_1)$  and not a measure of how strong our evidence is again  $H_0$ . p-values bridge this gap.

Specifically, for a given test statistic  $t^*$ , we could perform the test

$$t^* \overset{H_1}{\underset{H_{\alpha}}{\gtrless}} \tau_{\alpha}$$

where  $\tau_{\alpha}$  is a threshold associated with a type I error or false positive rate of  $\alpha$  (the value of  $\tau_{\alpha}$  depends on the distribution of  $t^*$  under the null hypothesis). One can easily imagine that there is a range of values of  $\alpha$  which would all lead us to reject  $H_0$ . The p-value is essentially the smallest  $\alpha$  (corresponding to the largest threshold  $\tau_{\alpha}$ ) for which we would reject  $H_0$  with our test statistic. More formally

#### Definition: p-value

The p-value is the smallest level at which we can reject  $H_0$ :

p-value = 
$$\inf\{\alpha: t^* > \tau_{\alpha}\}.$$

More generally, if  $R_{\alpha}$  is the rejection region associated with a test at level  $\alpha$ , then

p-value = 
$$\inf\{\alpha : t^* \in R_\alpha\}.$$

### Note: Notes on the p-value

• it measures the strength of the evidence against  $H_0$ : a small p-value (e.g., below 0.05, ideally below 0.01) indicates strong evidence against  $H_0$ .

- a large p-value is NOT evidence in favor of  $H_1$  (it's possible we just have a low-power test)
- the p-value should NOT be thought of as  $\mathbb{P}(H_0|\text{data})$ .

#### Theorem: Computation of the p-value

Let  $p_0$  denote the distribution of the test statistic under  $H_0$ . If we have a test of the form reject  $H_0$  if and only if  $t^* \geq \tau_{\alpha}$ , then

p-value = 
$$\mathbb{P}(T \ge t^* | T \sim p_0)$$
.

In other words, the p-value is the probability under  $H_0$  of observing a test statistic at least as extreme as what was observed.

#### Distribution of the p-value

If the test statistic has a continuous distribution, then under  $H_0$  the p-value is uniformly distributed between 0 and 1. Thus if we reject  $H_0$  whenever a p-value is less than  $\alpha$ , that test as a type I error or probability of false positives of  $\alpha$ .

#### **Example: GPA distributions**

We sample n = 15 students and look at their GPAs. The sample mean GPA among these students was  $\overline{x} = 3.15$ , and the sample standard deviation was

$$s = \sqrt{\frac{1}{14} \sum_{i=1}^{n} (x_i - \overline{x})^2} = 0.3.$$

We want to test whether the mean GPA is  $\mu_0 = 3$  or  $\mu > 3$ ; that is

$$H_0: x_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu_0, \sigma^2), \ i = 1, \dots, n$$
  
 $H_1: x_i \stackrel{iid}{\sim} \mathcal{N}(\mu, \sigma^2), \ i = 1, \dots, n, \ \mu > \mu_0 \text{ but otherwise unknown.}$ 

We can compute a t-statistic of  $t^* = \frac{\overline{x} - \mu_0}{s/\sqrt{n}} = 1.94$ , which follows a t-distribution with  $\nu = n - 1 = 14$  degrees of freedom.

What is the p-value for this statistic? We must compute

p-value = 
$$\mathbb{P}(T \ge t^* | T \sim p_{14}(t)) = 1 - \mathbb{P}(T < t^* | T \sim p_{14}(t));$$
 (1)

the last expression can be computed by evaluating the CDF of the t-distribution at  $t^*$  (e.g. using tcdf in matlab), yielding a p-value of 0.037 – thus we have strong (though not very strong) evidence for rejecting the null hypothesis that the mean GPA is 3.