# t-tests (comparing means)

Ling250/450: Data Science for Linguistics
C.M. Downey
Spring 2025



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  - $\bullet$  p < 0.05 means "less than 5% chance the Null would give us the data we observe"

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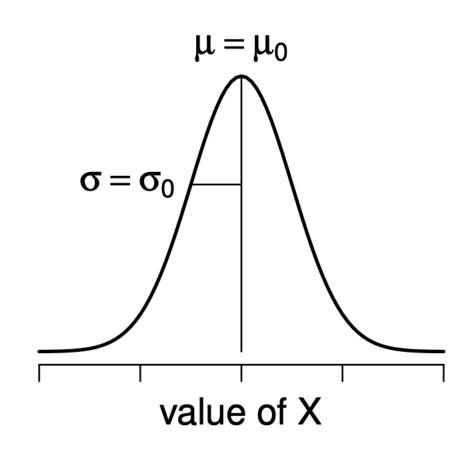
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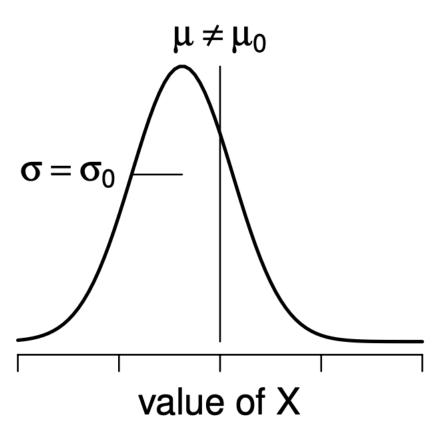
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- We'll only look at the math of the one-sample test in detail

# One-sample t-test

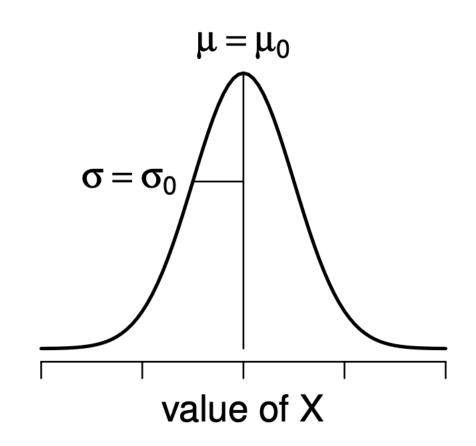
#### null hypothesis

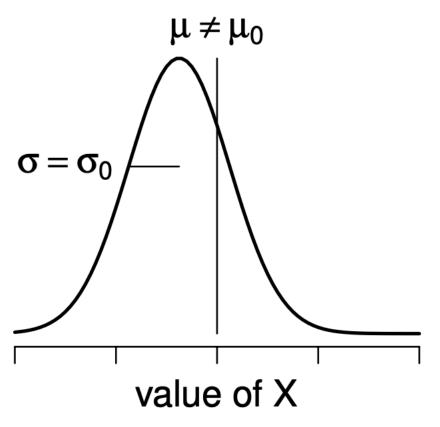




 As a "stepping-stone" to learning the t-test, we'll describe the z-test

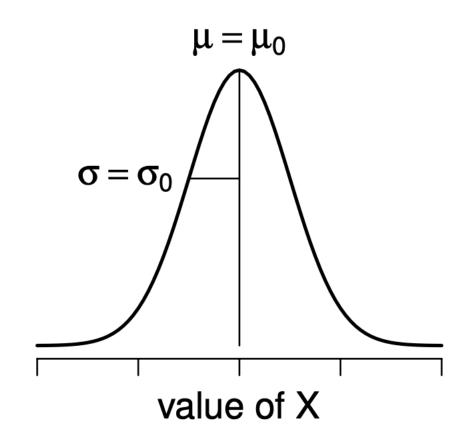
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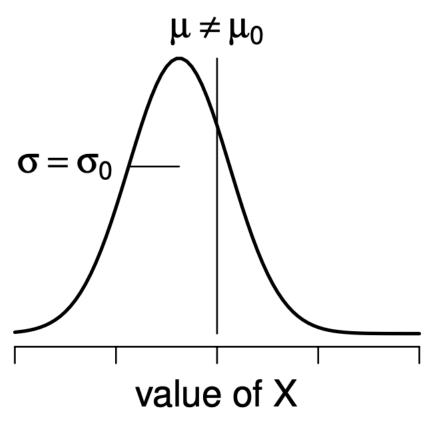




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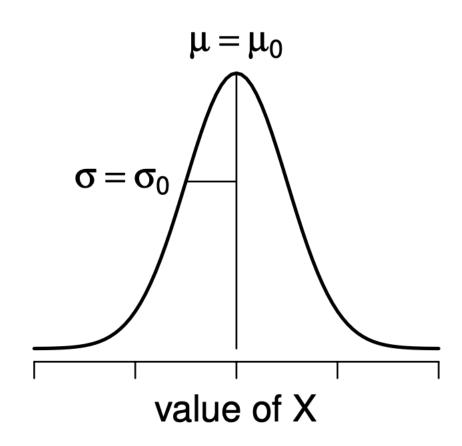
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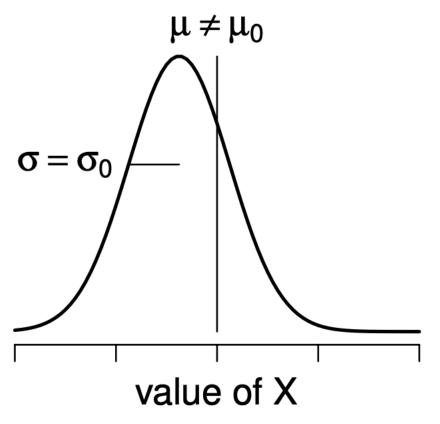




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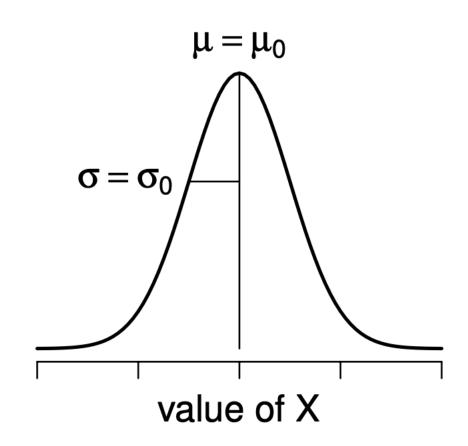
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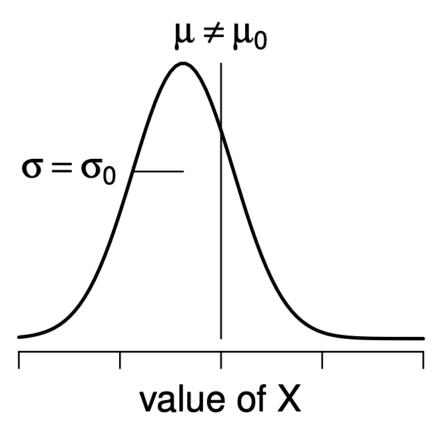




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  - We want to know if a sample comes from a population with a certain mean

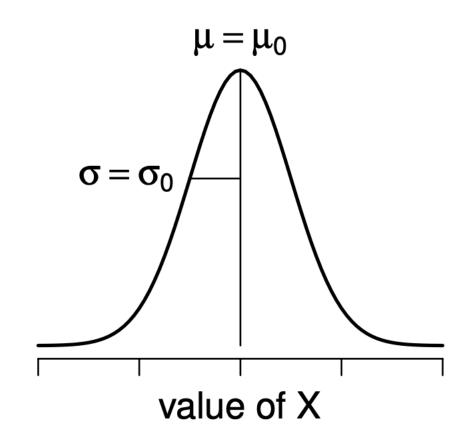
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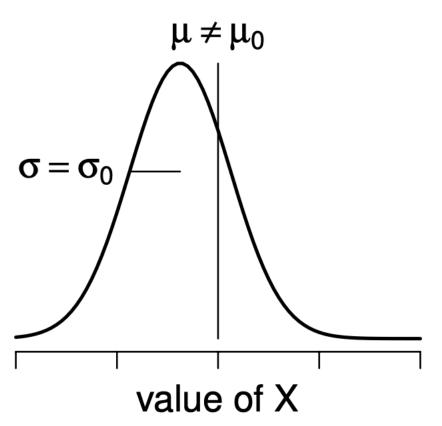




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  - We want to know if a sample comes from a population with a certain mean
  - Pretend example: do linguistics students have the same average grade as the entire class taking a foreign language?

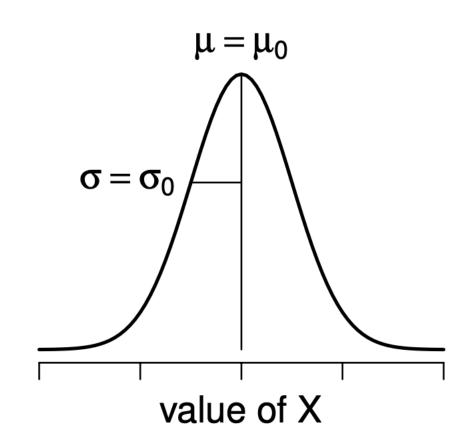
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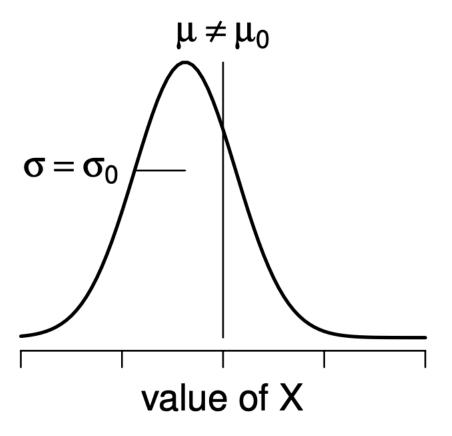




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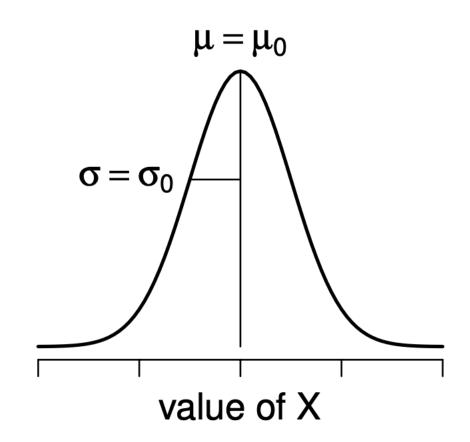


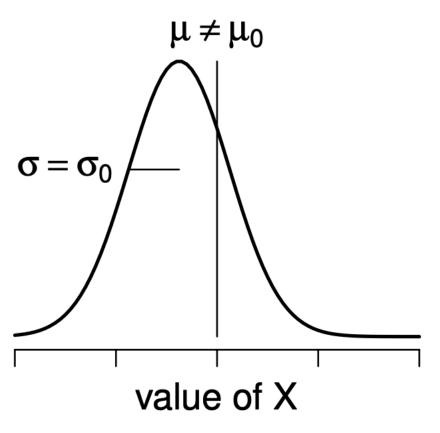


# z-test hypothesis

- Our Null hypothesis is that the Ling students have the same mean grade as the course overall
  - $\mu_0$  is the mean course grade (67.5)
  - $H_0$ :  $\mu = \mu_0 = 67.5$

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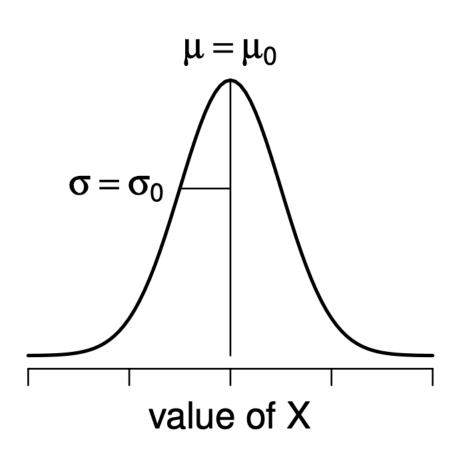


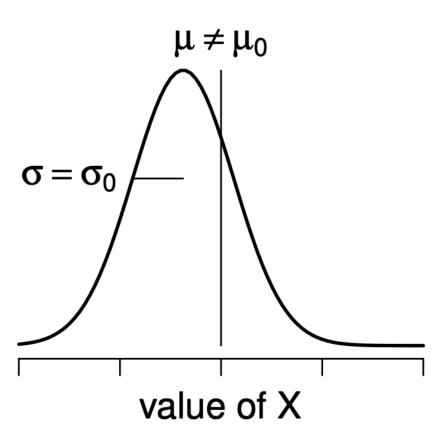


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- The alternative hypothesis is the Ling students have a different mean grade
  - $H_1: \mu \neq \mu_0 = 67.5$

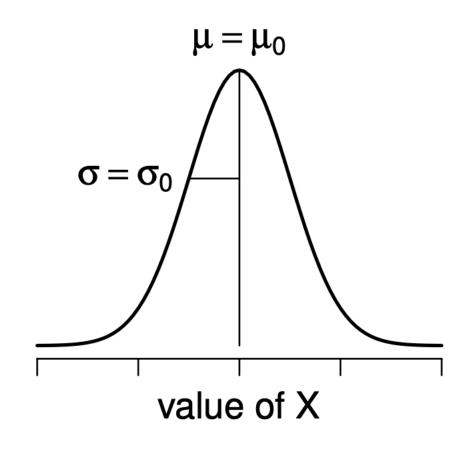
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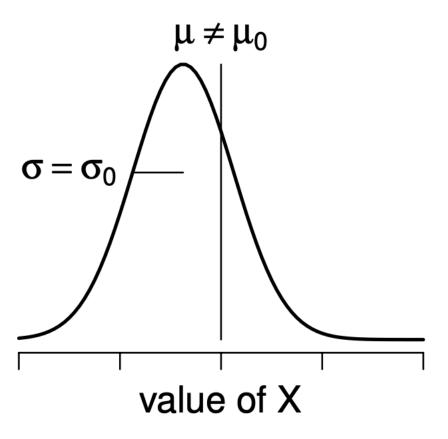




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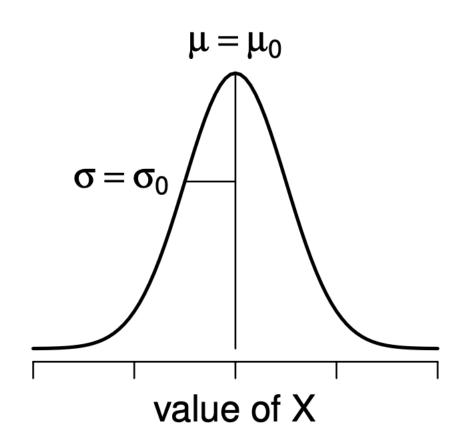


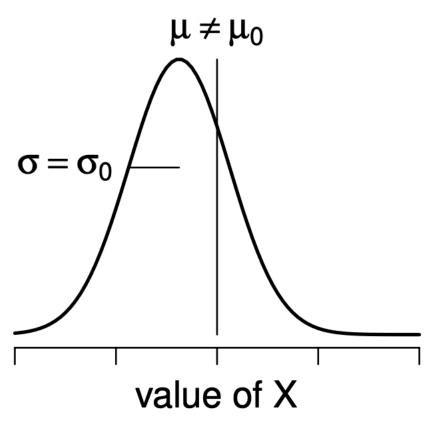


### z-test assumptions

- Big assumption: we assume we know the standard deviation of the population we compare against (e.g. the whole class;  $\sigma_0$ )
  - Also that our sample population (Ling students) has the same stdev
  - These are bad assumptions, which will lead us to the t-test

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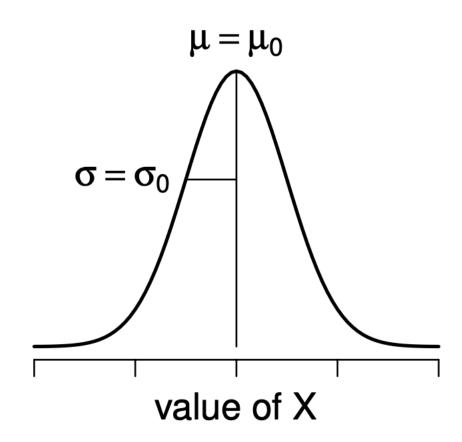


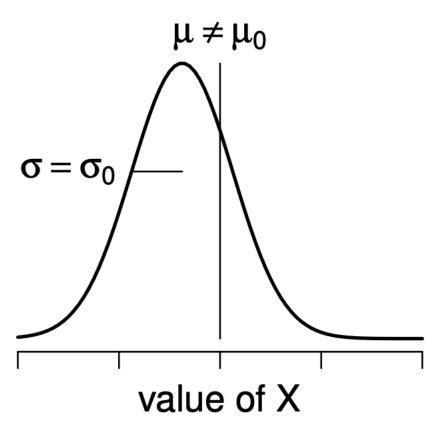


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  - Also that our sample population (Ling students) has the same stdev
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- We also assume the sampling distribution of the mean is Normal
  - This is usually a safe-ish assumption (see lecture on probability distributions)

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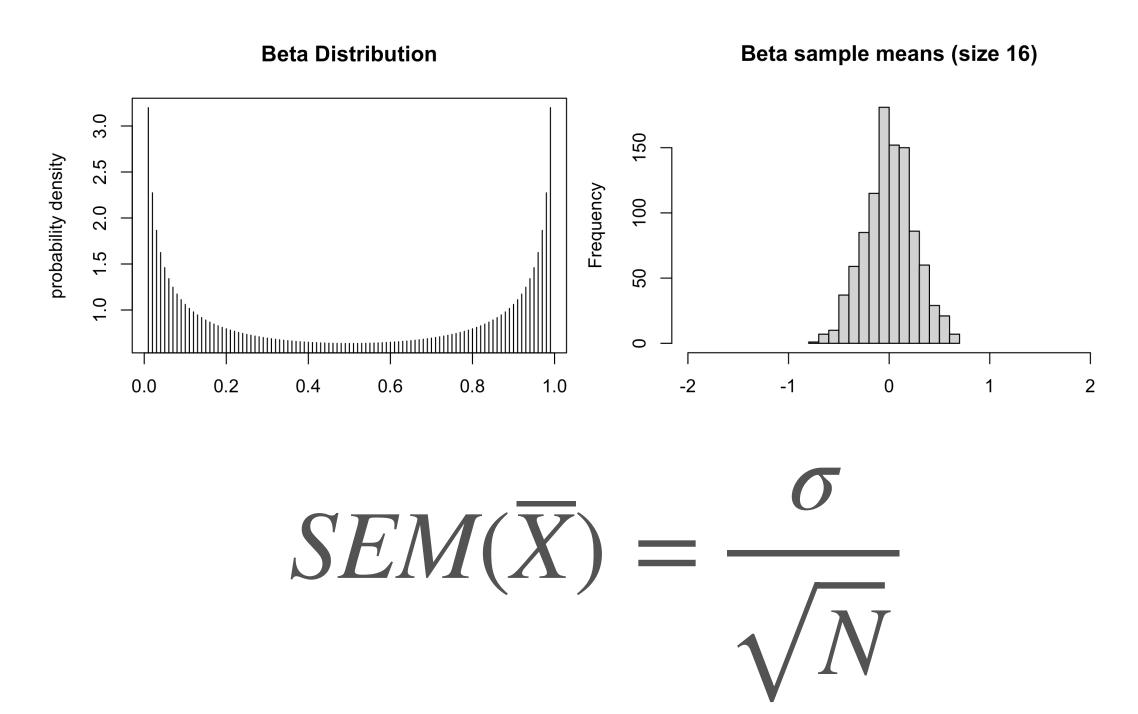
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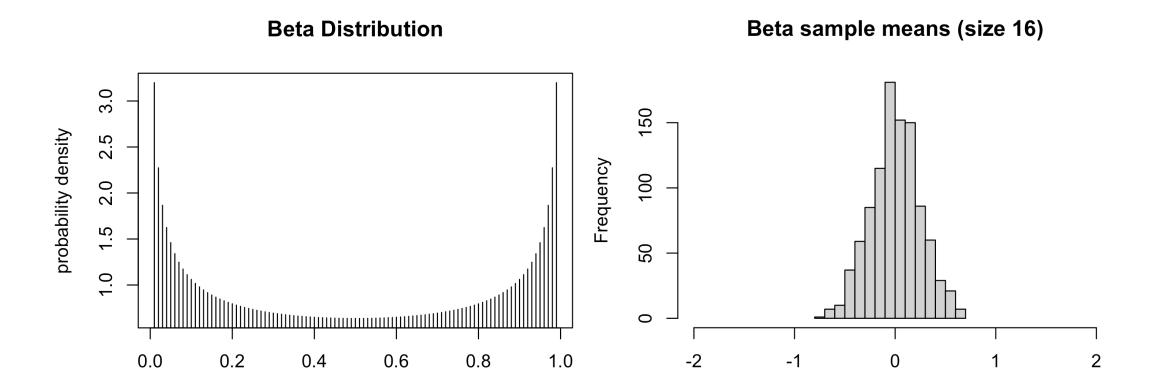
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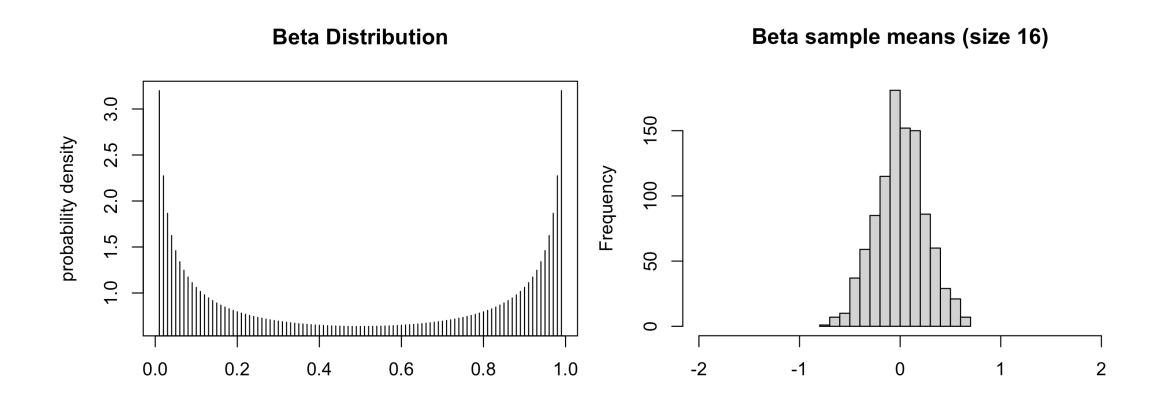
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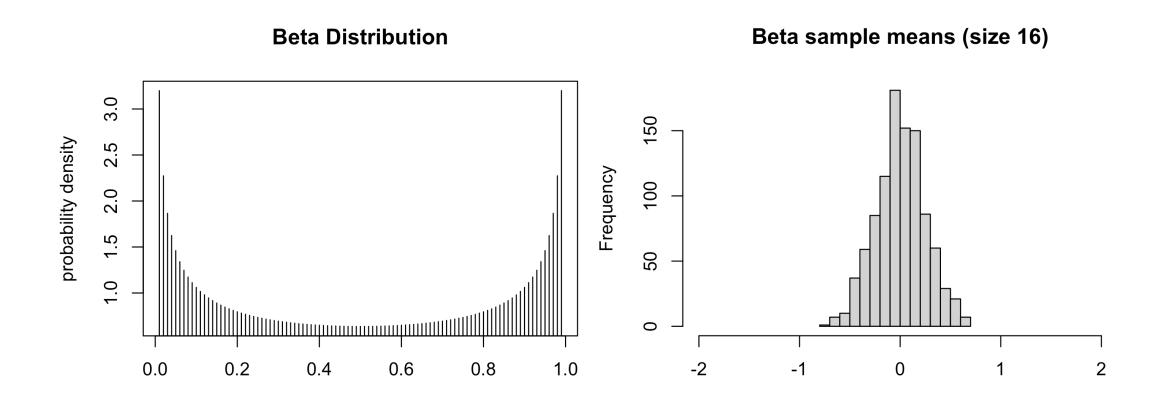
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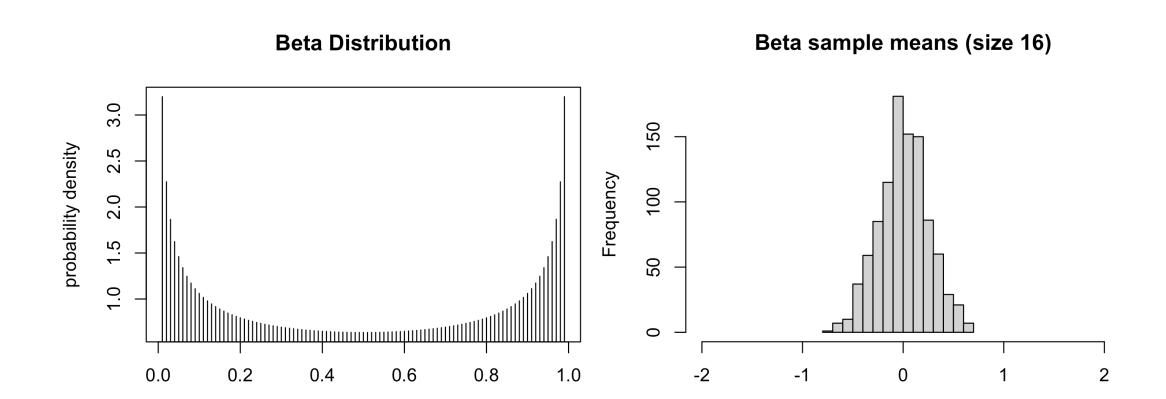
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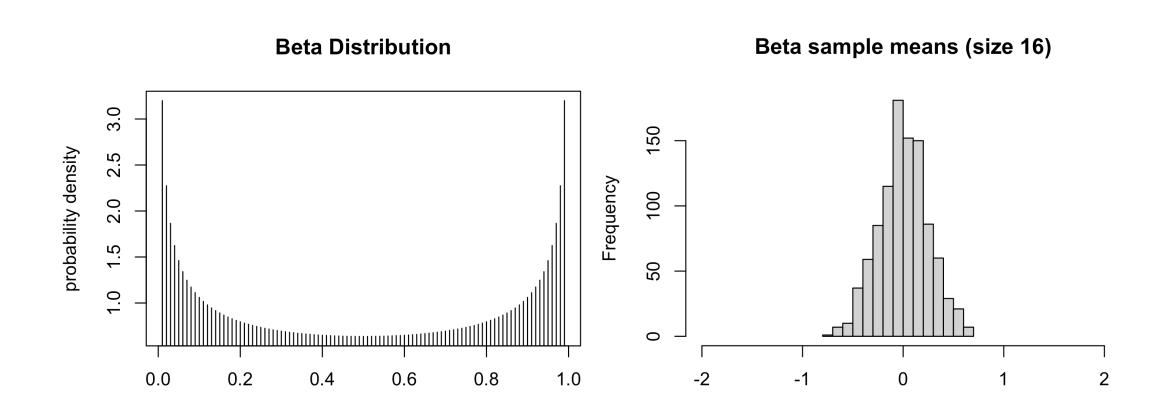
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  - ullet How much to we expect  $\overline{X}$  to differ from  $\mu$ ?



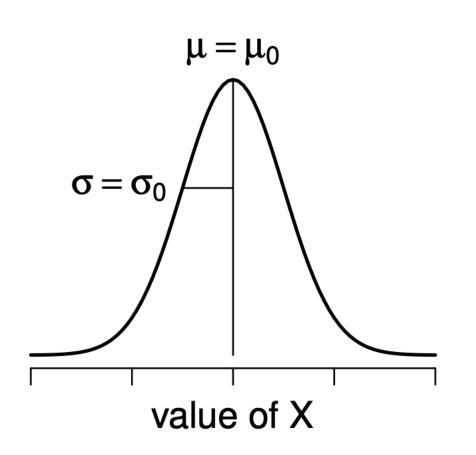
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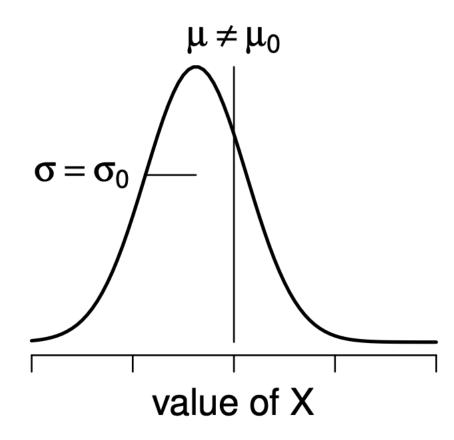
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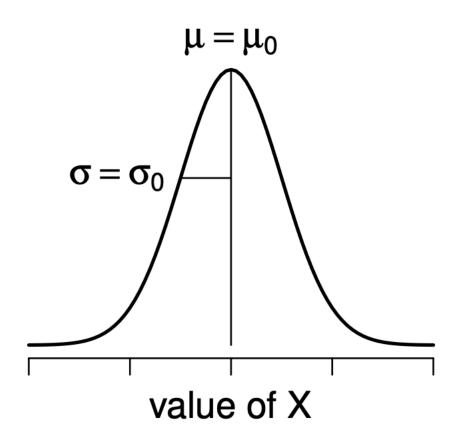


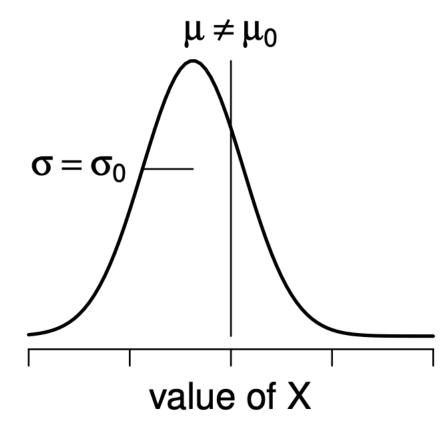
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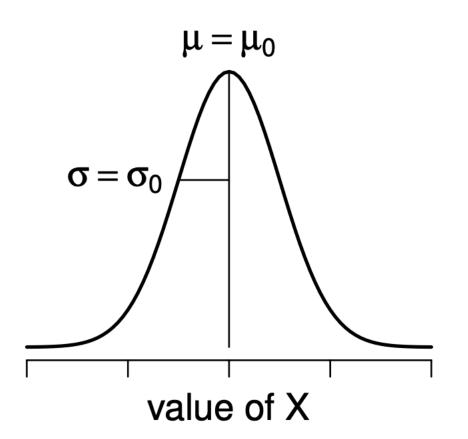


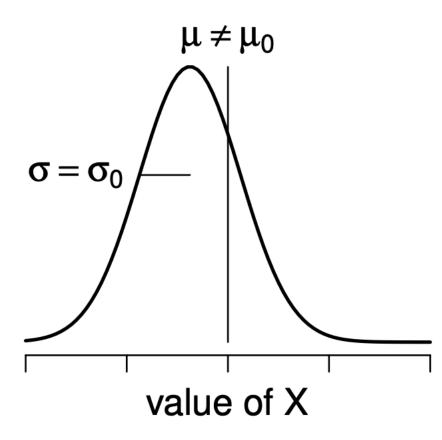
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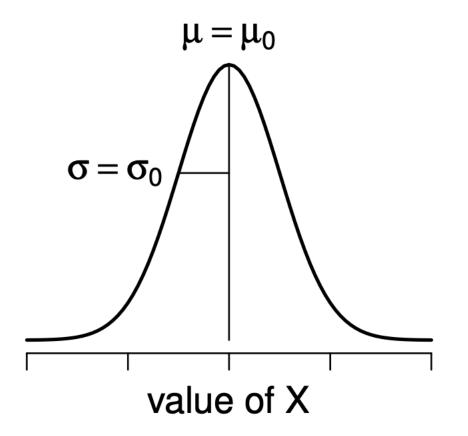


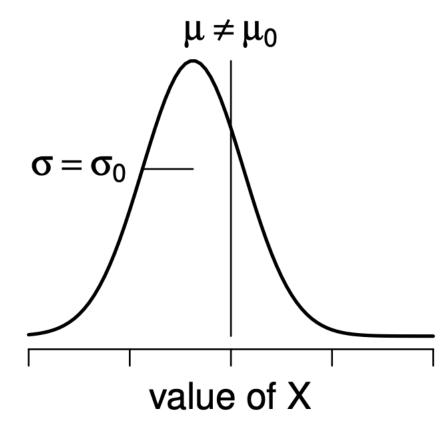
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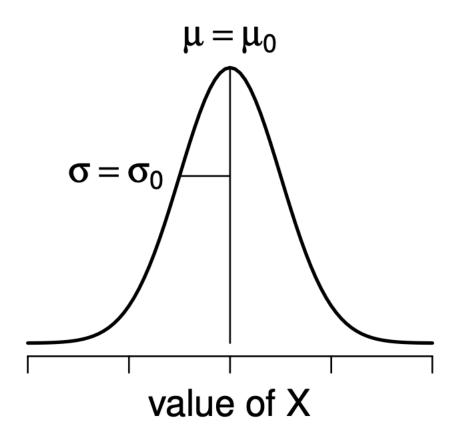


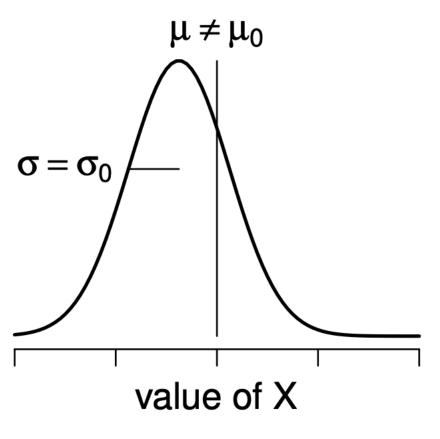
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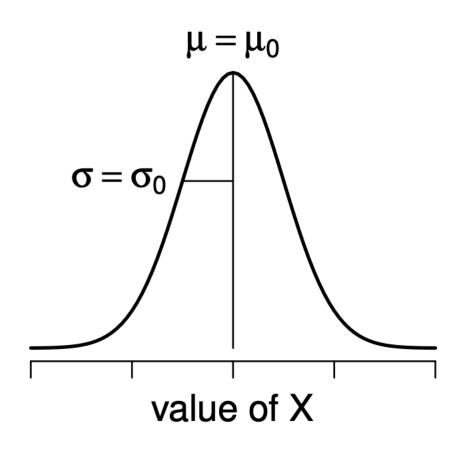


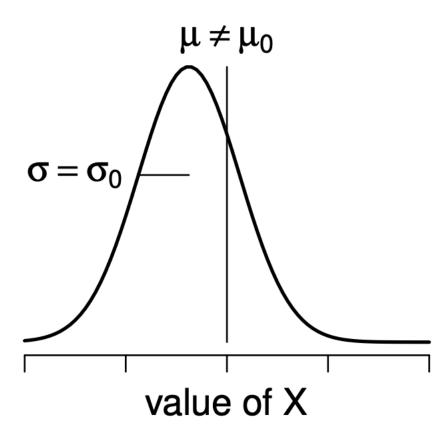
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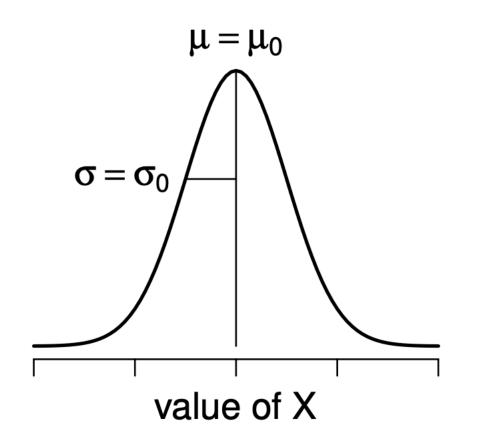


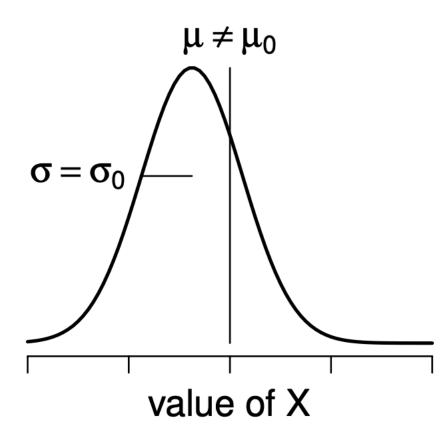
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  - $\bullet$   $\sigma_0$  : the **population standard deviation** under the Null
  - *N*: the **sample size** (number of Ling students taking the class)
- This tells us which values of  $\overline{X}$  are more probable, assuming the Null!

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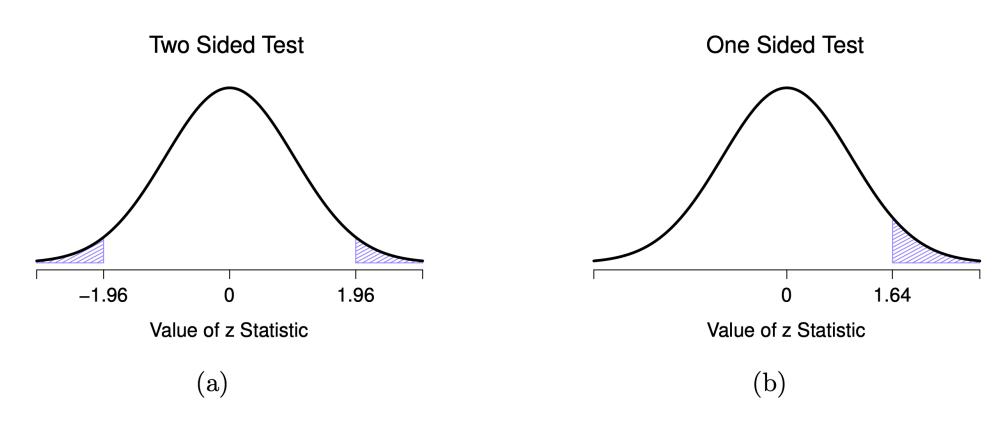


Figure 13.3: Rejection regions for the two-sided z-test (panel a) and the one-sided z-test (panel b).

 The z-score is how many standard deviations away a certain value is from the mean, in a Normal distribution

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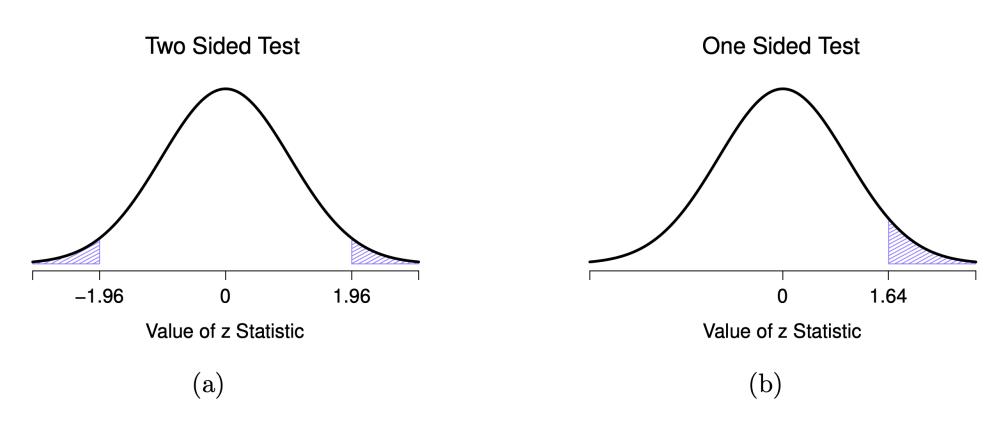


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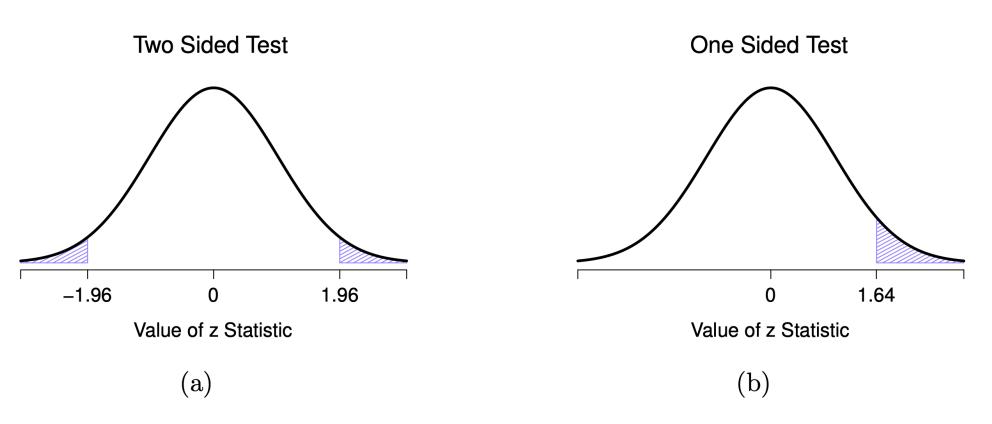


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- This lets us define a critical region for a significant result!

$$z_{\overline{X}} = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu_0}{SEM(\overline{X})}$$

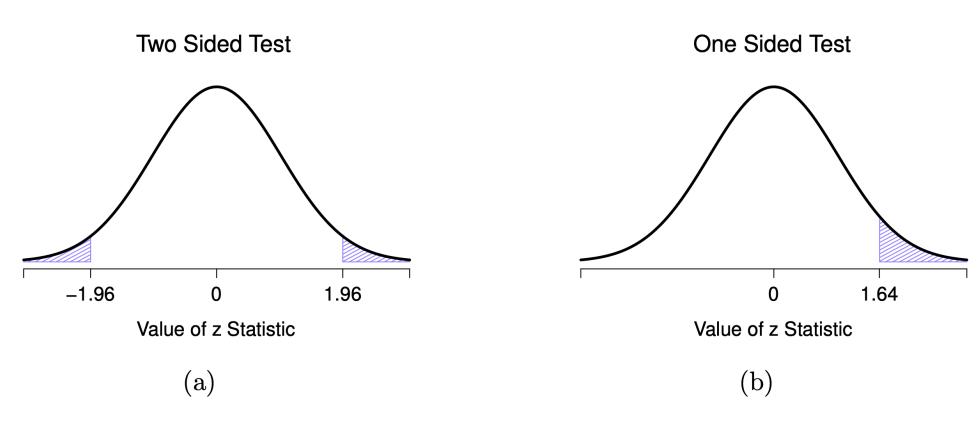


Figure 13.3: Rejection regions for the two-sided z-test (panel a) and the one-sided z-test (panel b).

- The z-score is how many standard deviations away a certain value is from the mean, in a Normal distribution
  - The area under the curve is easily calculable from z-scores!
- This lets us define a critical region for a significant result!
  - i.e. if  $\overline{X}$  is a certain z-score away from  $\mu_0$ , we can say  $\mu \neq \mu_0$  with statistical significance!

$$z_{\overline{X}} = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu_0}{SEM(\overline{X})}$$

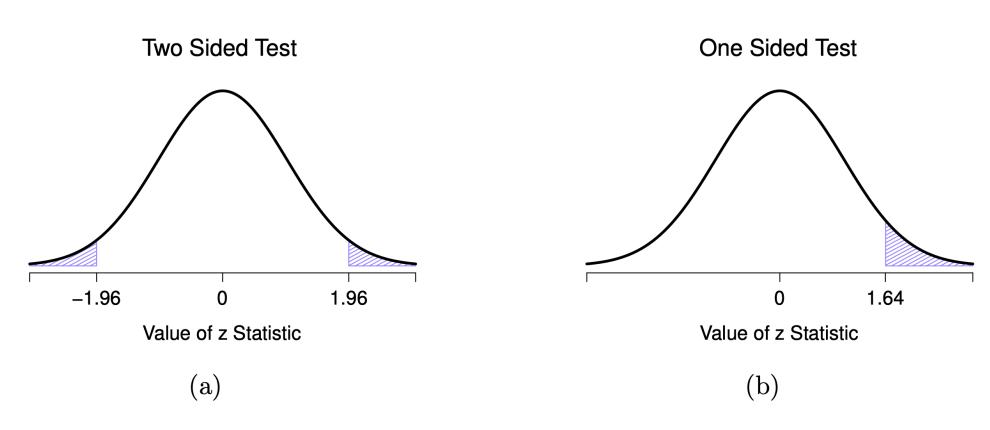


Figure 13.3: Rejection regions for the two-sided z-test (panel a) and the one-sided z-test (panel b).

```
> null_mean = 67.5
> null_stdev = 9.5
> N = 20
> SEM = null_stdev / sqrt(N)
> SEM
[1] 2.124265
> ling_mean = 72.3
> z_score = (ling_mean - null_mean) / SEM
> z_score
[1] 2.259606
>
> upper_area = pnorm(z_score, lower.tail=FALSE)
> upper_area
[1] 0.01192287
> # this is our p-value!
```

 These are all the ingredients we need to calculate the significance

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> null_mean = 67.5
> null_stdev = 9.5
> N = 20
> SEM = null_stdev / sqrt(N)
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[1] 2.124265
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[1] 2.259606
>
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> upper_area
[1] 0.01192287
> # this is our p-value!
```

- These are all the ingredients we need to calculate the significance
- Let's plug in some values
  - Sample size (number of Ling students): N = 20
  - Sample mean (their average grade):  $\overline{X} = 72.3$

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> null_mean = 67.5
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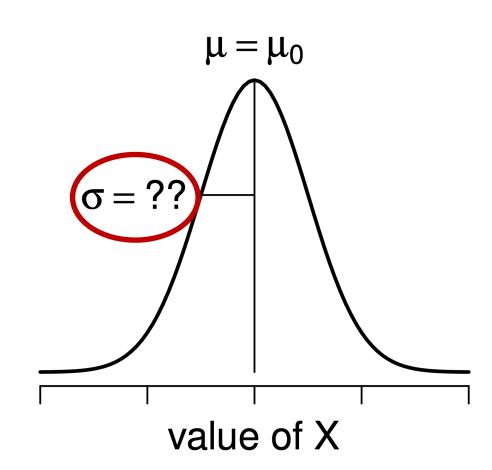
- These are all the ingredients we need to calculate the significance
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  - Sample size (number of Ling students): N = 20
  - Sample mean (their average grade):  $\overline{X} = 72.3$
- Calculation on the right →

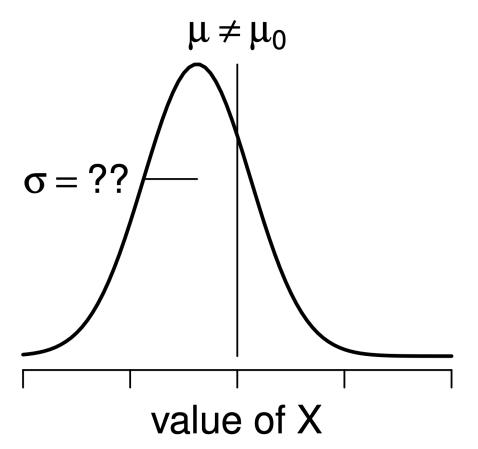
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- These are all the ingredients we need to calculate the significance
- Let's plug in some values
  - Sample size (number of Ling students): N = 20
  - Sample mean (their average grade):  $\overline{X} = 72.3$
- Calculation on the right →
- p-value is **0.012** 
  - We'd have a 1.2% chance of seeing a sample mean as high as that if the Null were true
  - (i.e. a fairly significant result)

```
> null_mean = 67.5
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[1] 2.124265
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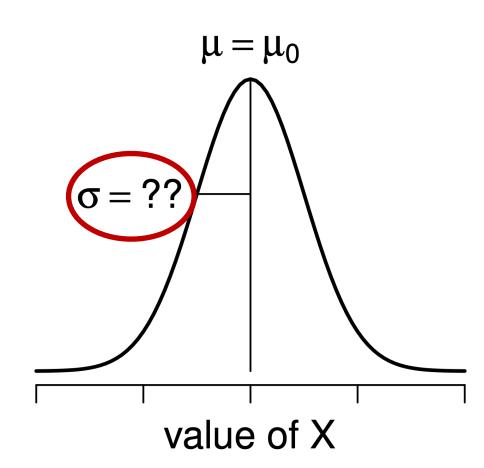
null hypothesis

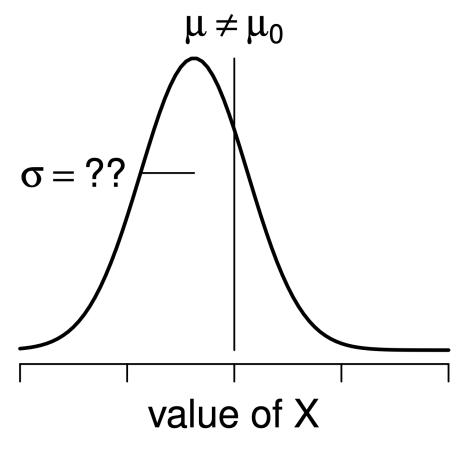




Remember we're assuming weird
 things about the standard deviation

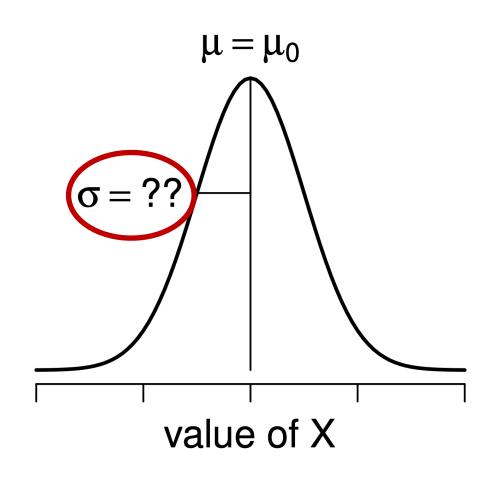
null hypothesis

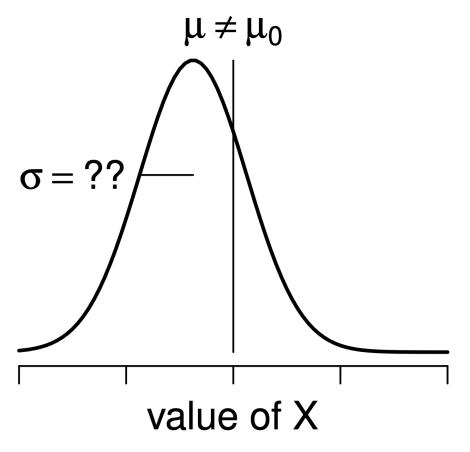




- Remember we're assuming weird
   things about the standard deviation
  - We assume we **know the overall population stdev** ( $\sigma_0$ , the standard deviation of all students who take the class)

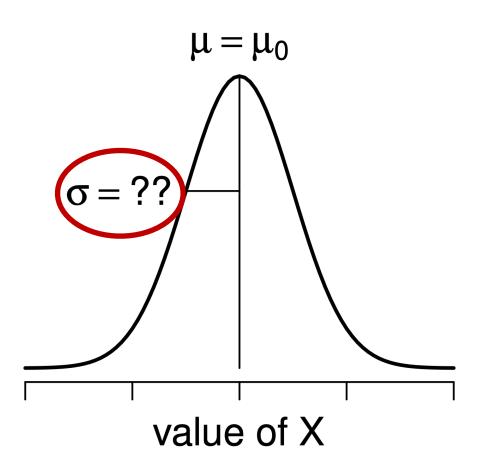
null hypothesis

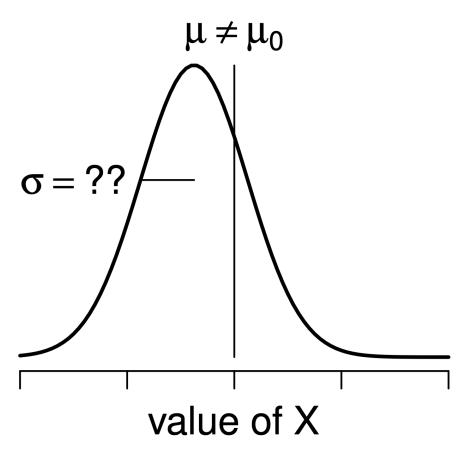




- Remember we're assuming weird
   things about the standard deviation
  - We assume we **know the overall population stdev** ( $\sigma_0$ , the standard deviation of all students who take the class)
  - We assume that the Ling student stdev is the same as the overall stdev ( $\sigma = \sigma_0$ )

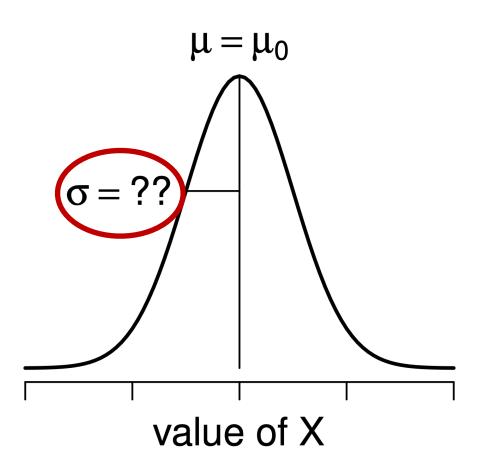
null hypothesis

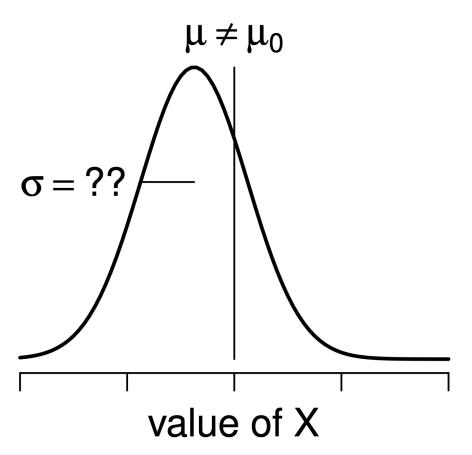




- Remember we're assuming weird
   things about the standard deviation
  - We assume we **know the overall population stdev** ( $\sigma_0$ , the standard deviation of all students who take the class)
  - We assume that the Ling student stdev is the same as the overall stdev ( $\sigma = \sigma_0$ )
- The t-test eliminates these assumptions

null hypothesis

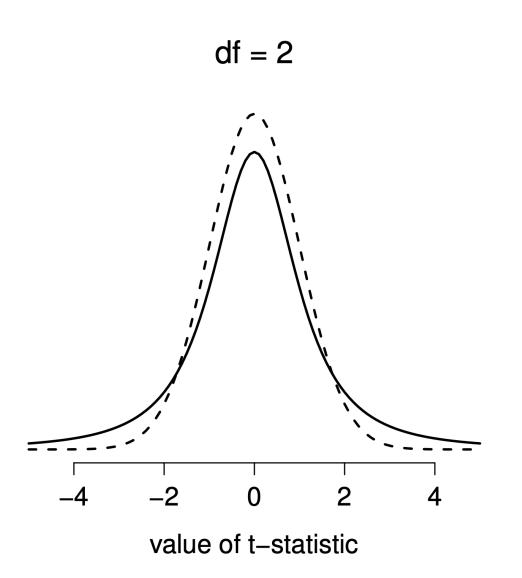


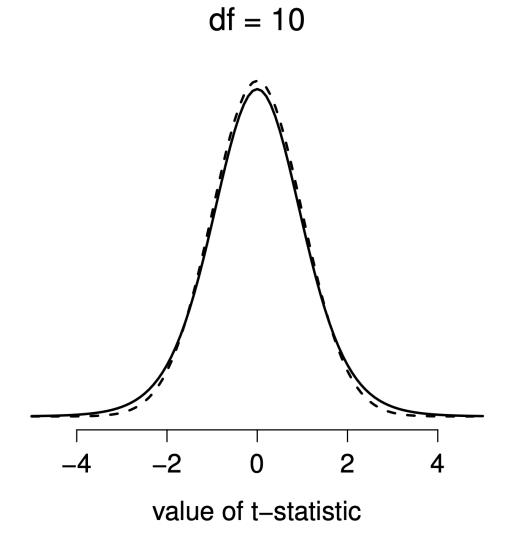


• The t-test is almost the same as the z-test (that's why we did it first)

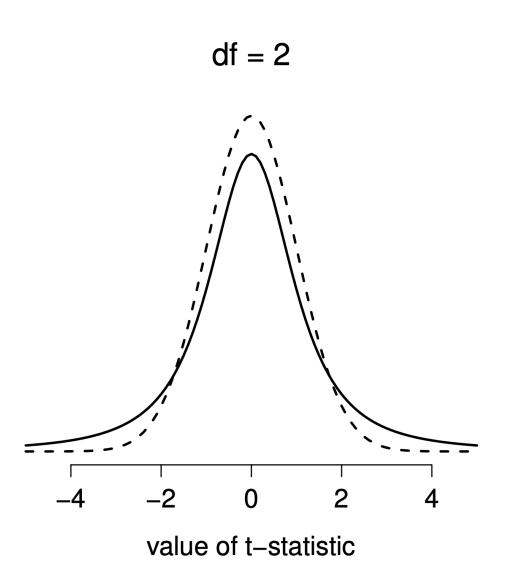
- The t-test is almost the same as the z-test (that's why we did it first)
- Change 1:
  - We don't have the true population stdev  $(\sigma)$
  - We instead estimate it from our sample  $(\hat{\sigma} = \sigma(X))$

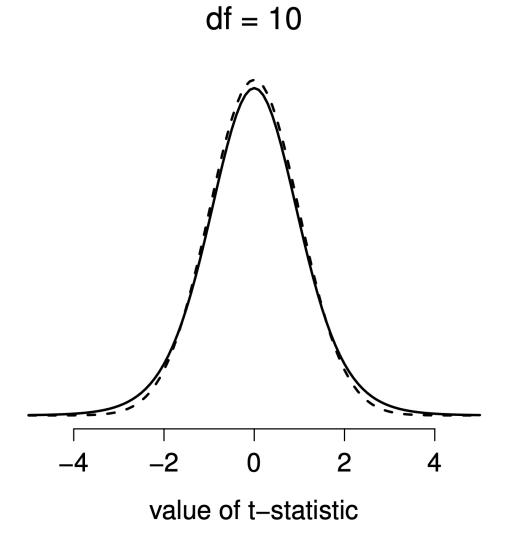
- The t-test is almost the same as the z-test (that's why we did it first)
- Change 1:
  - We don't have the true population stdev  $(\sigma)$
  - We instead estimate it from our sample ( $\hat{\sigma} = \sigma(X)$ )
- Change 2:
  - We use a t-distribution instead of a Normal distribution
  - What's a t-distribution?



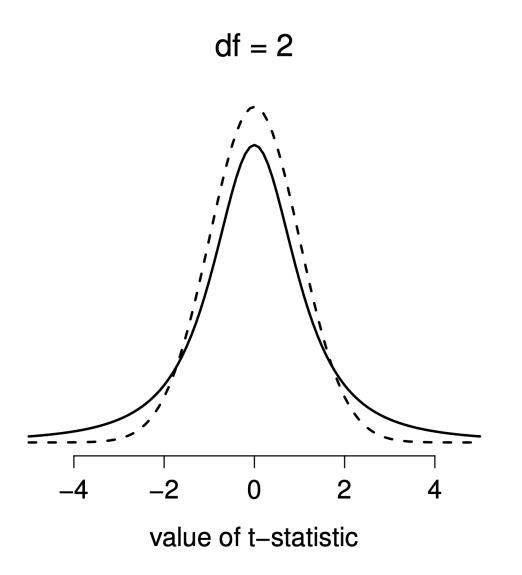


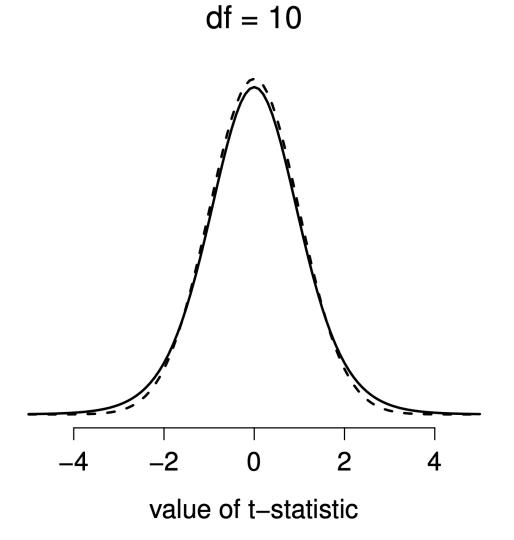
 The t-distribution fairly similar to the Normal distribution, except:



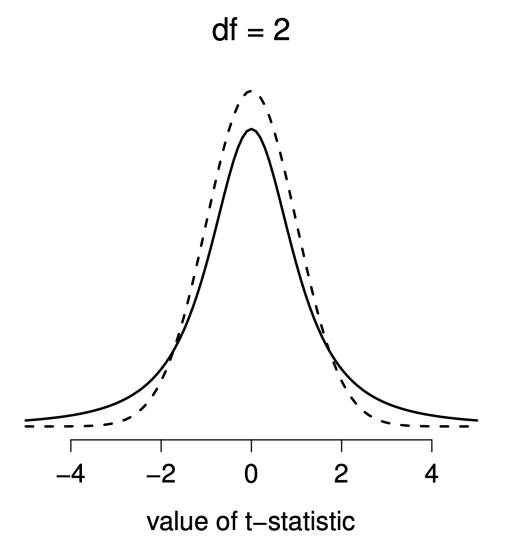


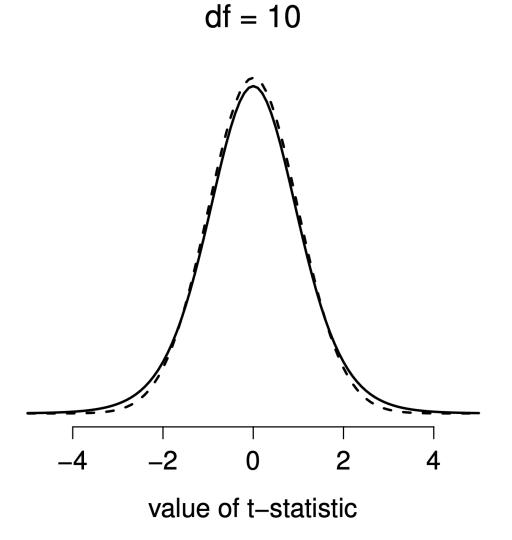
- The t-distribution fairly similar to the Normal distribution, except:
  - It has fatter tails



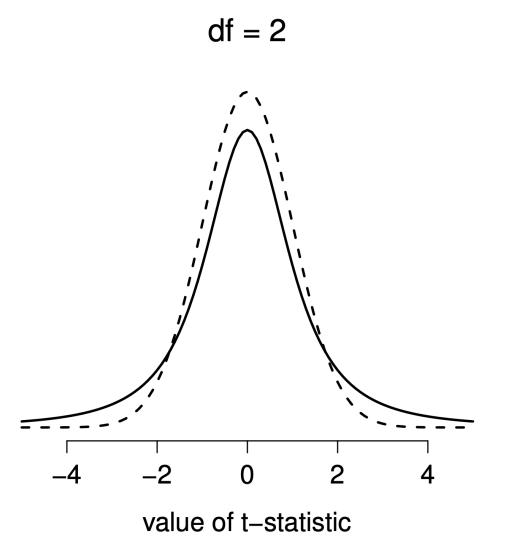


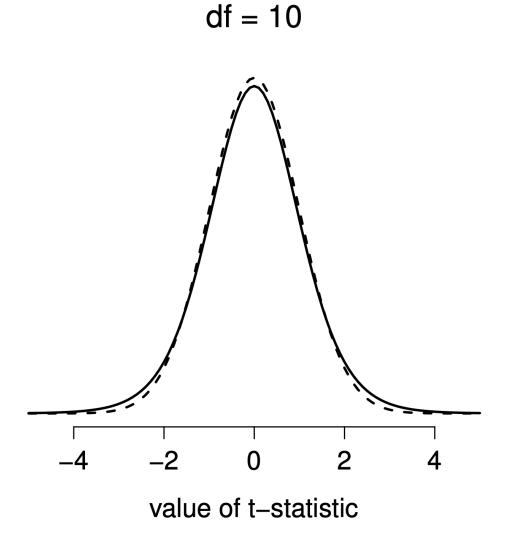
- The t-distribution fairly similar to the Normal distribution, except:
  - It has fatter tails
  - The fatness of the tails depends on the sample size (called "degrees of freedom")



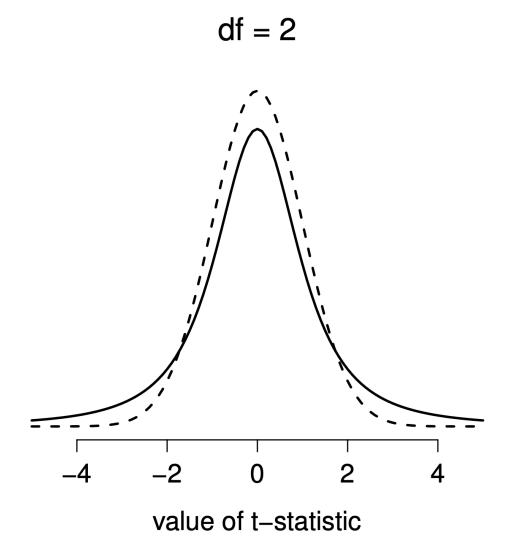


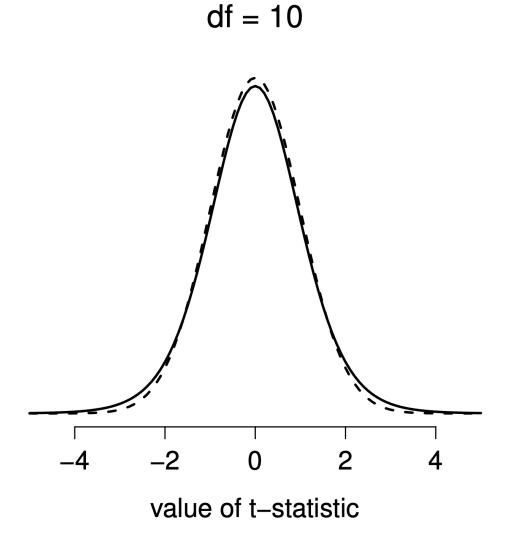
- The t-distribution fairly similar to the Normal distribution, except:
  - It has fatter tails
  - The fatness of the tails depends on the sample size (called "degrees of freedom")
- Lower df → fatter tails



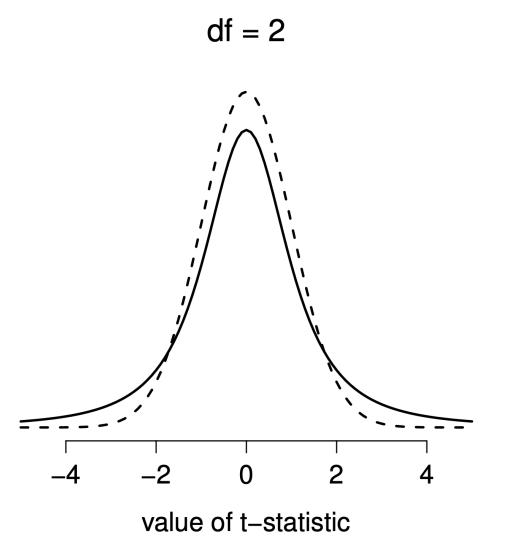


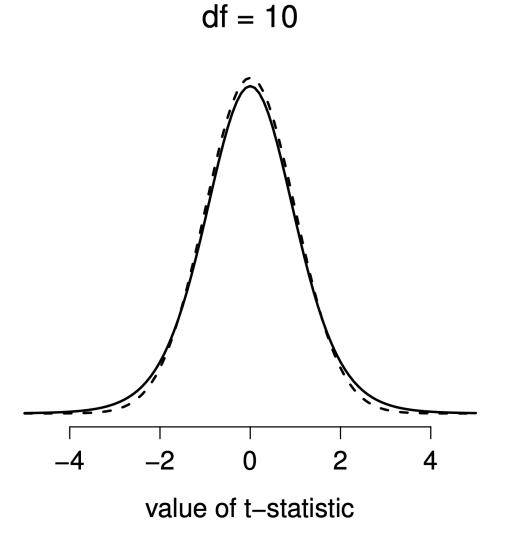
- The t-distribution fairly similar to the Normal distribution, except:
  - It has fatter tails
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- Lower df → fatter tails
  - Accounts for uncertainty in small samples



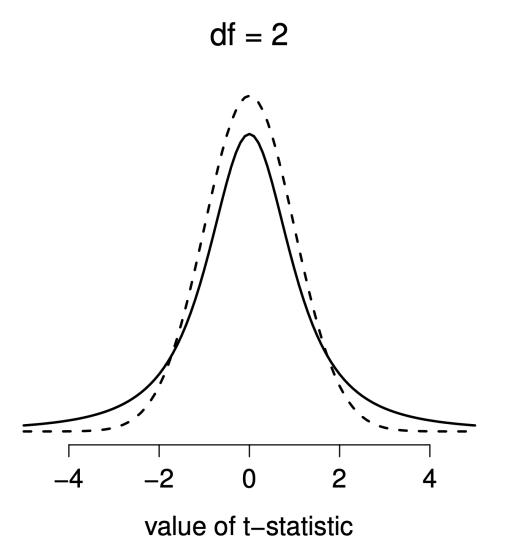


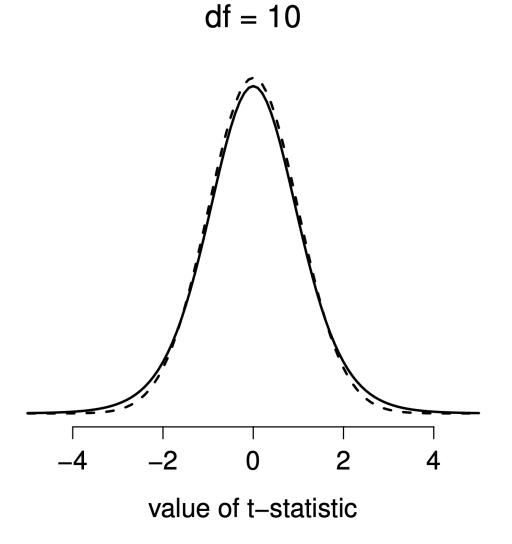
- The t-distribution fairly similar to the Normal distribution, except:
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  - For sample size N, df = N-1





- The t-distribution fairly similar to the Normal distribution, except:
  - It has fatter tails
  - The fatness of the tails depends on the sample size (called "degrees of freedom")
- Lower df → fatter tails
  - Accounts for uncertainty in small samples
  - For sample size N, df = N-1
- Higher df → closer to Normal

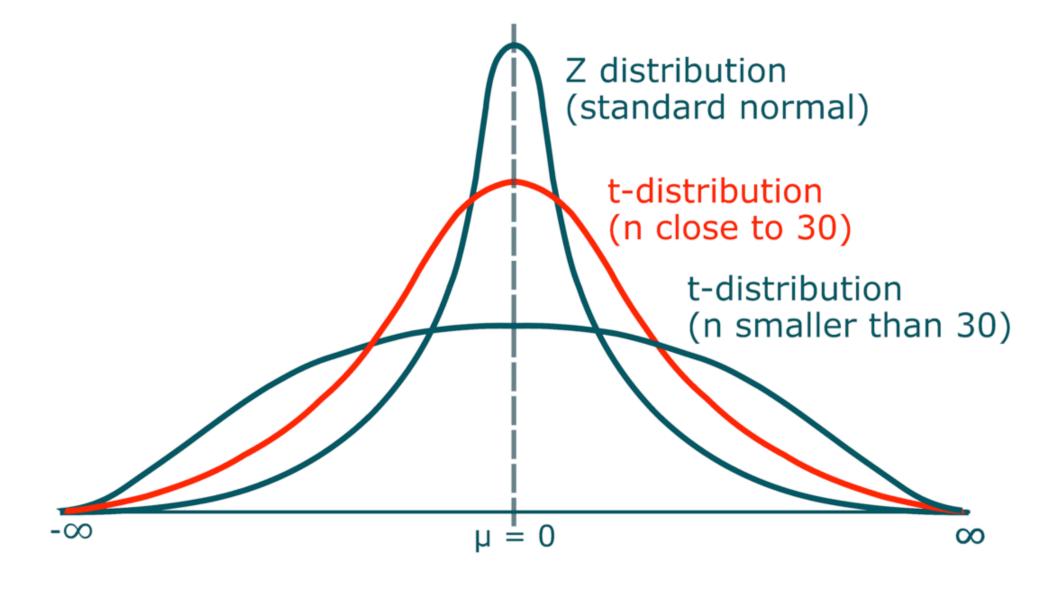




#### t-score

- Instead of the z-score, we calculate the t-score
  - Identical to z-score, except for the estimated stdev
- Significance found by plugging the t-score into the t-distribution
- That's it!

$$t = \frac{\overline{X} - \mu_0}{\widehat{\sigma} / N}$$



### t-test in R (from scratch)

```
> null_mean = 67.5
> ling_mean = 72.3
> ling_stdev = 10.1
> N = 20
> # SEM using the estimated stdev from the sample
> SEM = ling_stdev / sqrt(N)
> SEM
[1] 2.258429
> t_score = (ling_mean - null_mean) / SEM
> t_score
[1] 2.125372
>
> upper_area = pt(t_score, df=N-1, lower.tail=FALSE)
> upper_area
[1] 0.02344606
> # This is our p-value using the t-test
```

# t-test in R (the correct way)

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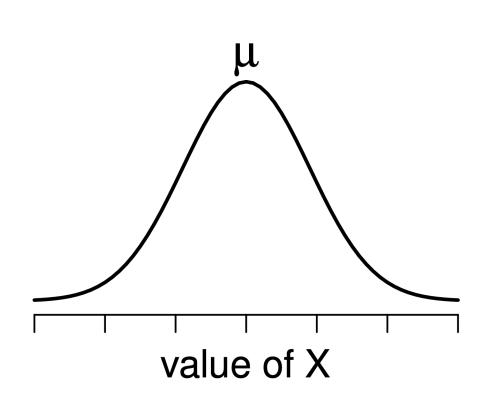
- You can conduct a t-test with R's
  - t.test() command
  - x: the sample values
  - mu: the Null hypothesis mean
  - alternative="greater" makes it a one-sided test

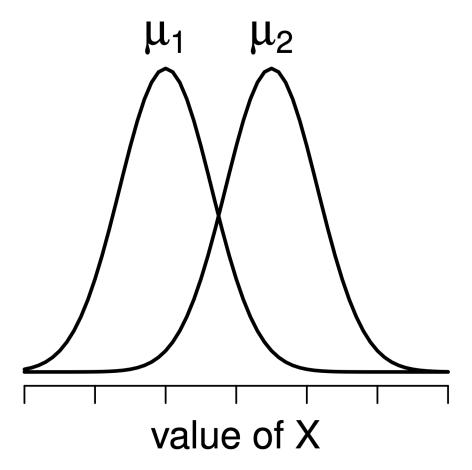
# t-test in R (the correct way)

- You can conduct a t-test with R's t.test() command
  - x: the sample values
  - mu: the Null hypothesis mean
  - alternative="greater" makes it a one-sided test
- Reminder: this is called a One-Sample t-test
  - We'll cover other types in less detail

### Other t-test varieties

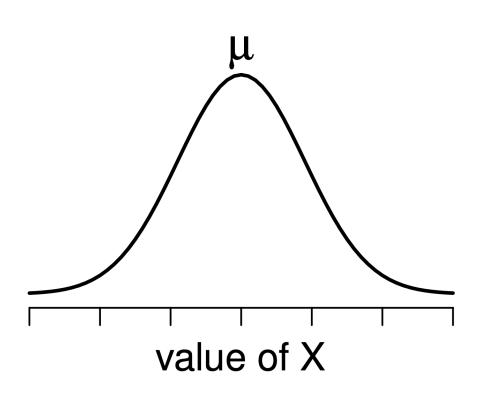
null hypothesis

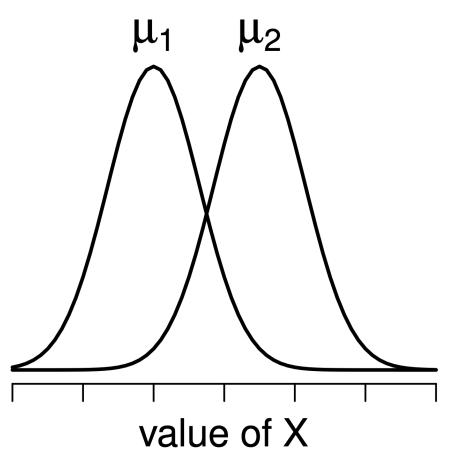




 There are two varieties of t-test for comparing independent samples

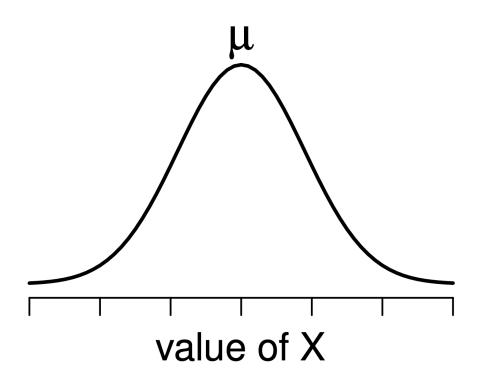
null hypothesis

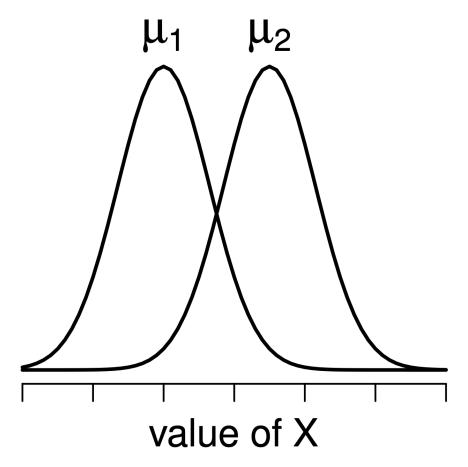




- There are two varieties of t-test for comparing independent samples
  - The first is called "Student's" (this was the penname of the inventor)

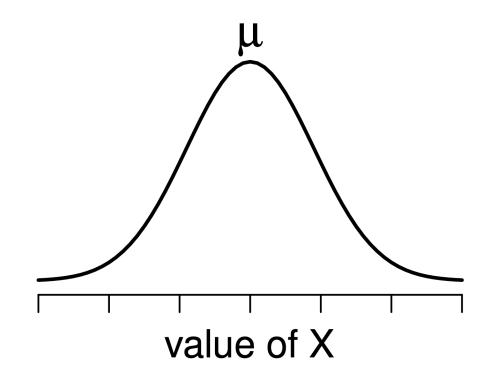
null hypothesis

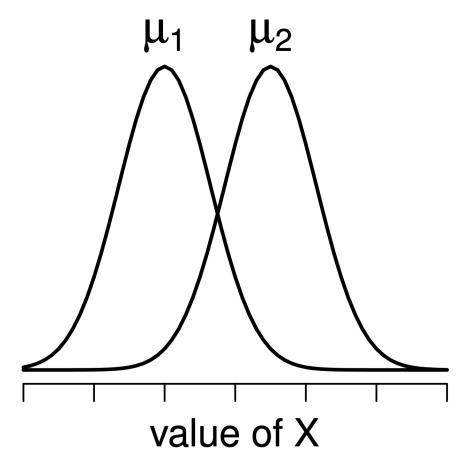




- There are two varieties of t-test for comparing independent samples
  - The first is called "Student's" (this was the penname of the inventor)
- Idea: see if two samples have the same mean

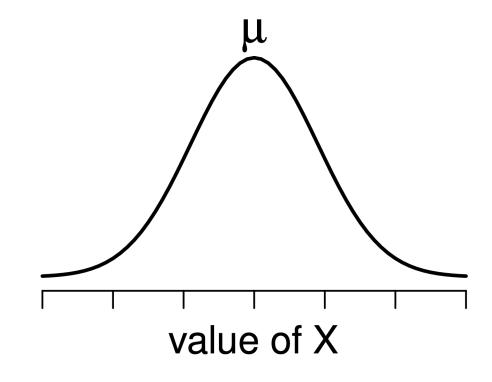
null hypothesis

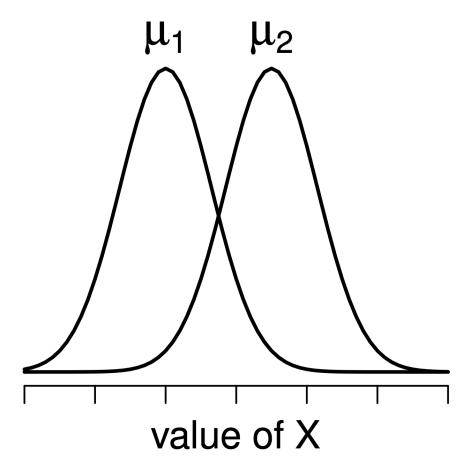




- There are two varieties of t-test for comparing independent samples
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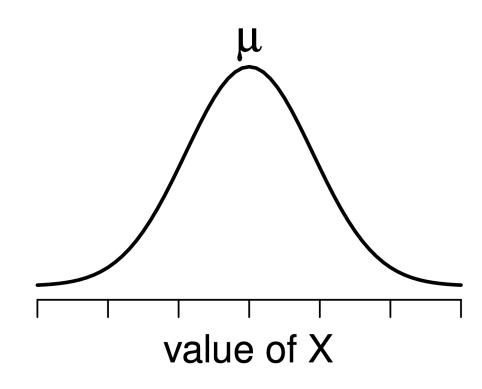
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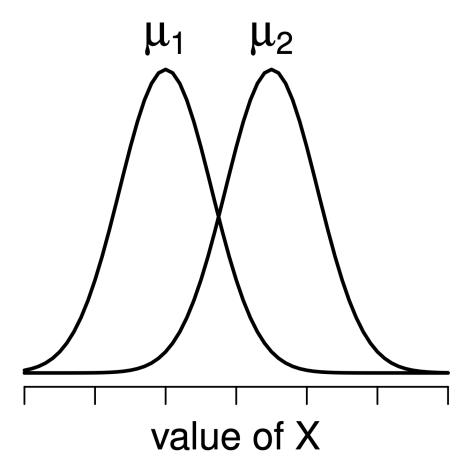




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  - $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$

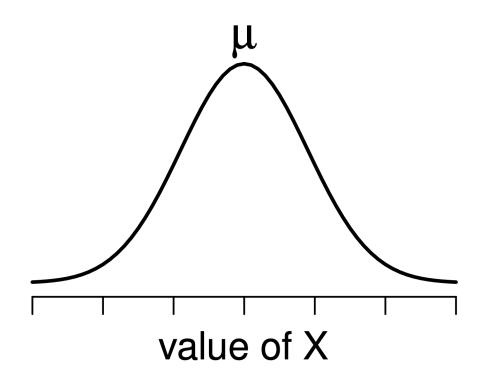
null hypothesis

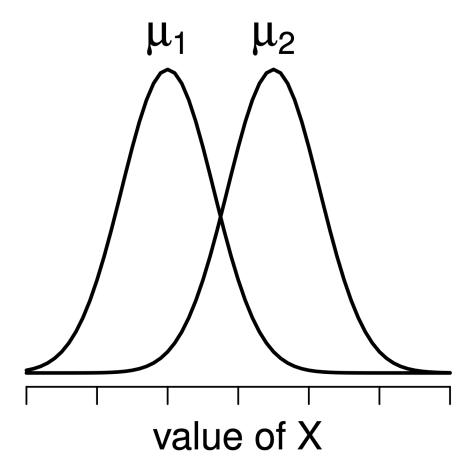




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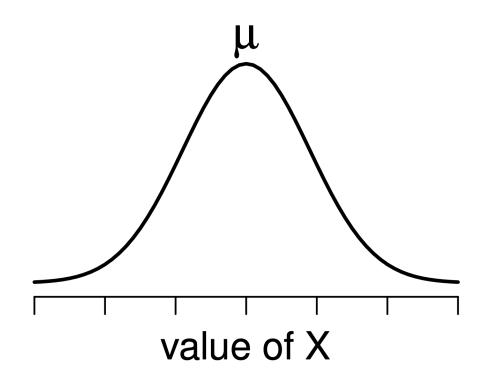
null hypothesis

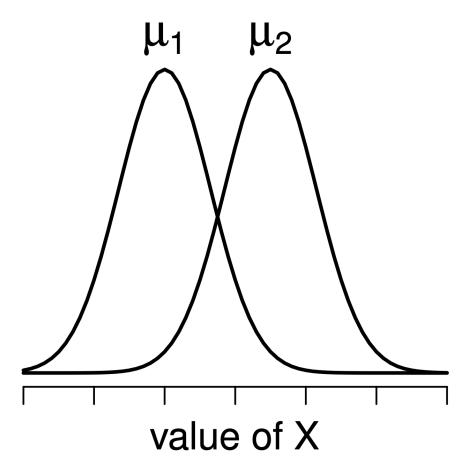




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  - $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$
  - $H_1: \mu_1 \neq \mu_2$
- Example: do two tutors get their students significantly different grades?

null hypothesis





- Still gets a t-score in the end, but has to pool the standard deviations of both samples together to calculate
  - Don't worry about how this is done. See the book if interested.

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- Still gets a t-score in the end, but has to pool the standard deviations of both samples together to calculate
  - Don't worry about how this is done. See the book if interested.
- Student's test assumes the two populations have the same standard deviation
  - This is the key difference from Welch's t-test
- The two samples are assumed to be independent from each other
  - i.e. having the same participant in both samples would break this assumption

> head(tutor\_grades)

```
grade
               tutor
1 93.60010 Anastasia
2 84.59462 Anastasia
3 79.06581 Anastasia
4 61.45601 Anastasia
5 73.03190 Anastasia
6 73.46387 Anastasia
> t.test(formula = grade ~ tutor, data=tutor_grades, var.equal=TRUE)
        Two Sample t-test
data: grade by tutor
t = 1.1026, df = 31, p-value = 0.2787
alternative hypothesis: true difference in means between group Anasta
sia and group Bernadette is not equal to 0
95 percent confidence interval:
 -3.053475 10.240356
sample estimates:
 mean in group Anastasia mean in group Bernadette
                72.34231
                                         68.74887
```

 We still use t.test(), but the syntax is different from one-sample tests

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> head(tutor_grades)
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- We still use t.test(), but the syntax is different from one-sample tests
- formula = grade ~ tutor
  - Indicates our samples are by tutor
  - Grades are our test statistic
  - This makes it a multiple-sample test

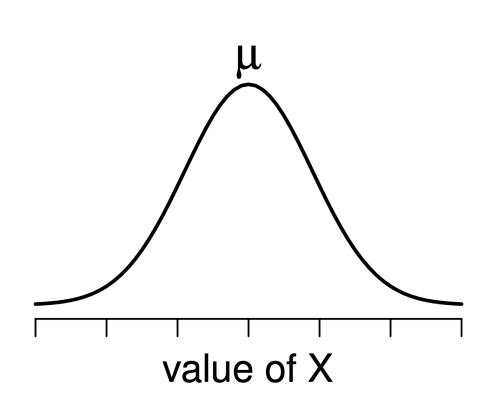
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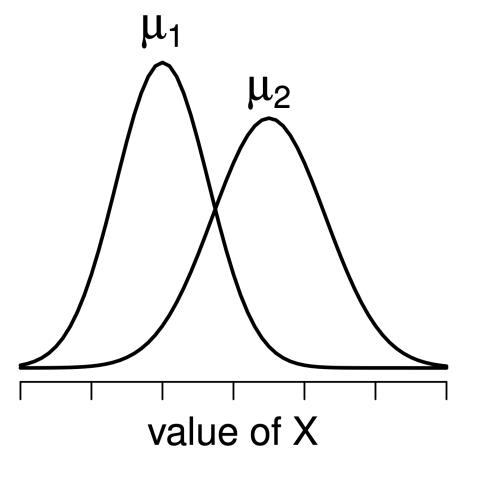
- We still use t.test(), but the syntax is different from one-sample tests
- formula = grade ~ tutor
  - Indicates our samples are by tutor
  - Grades are our test statistic
  - This makes it a multiple-sample test
- var.equal = TRUE gives us theStudent's t-test
  - If this is left out or set to FALSE we get
     Welch Independent-samples t-test

```
> head(tutor_grades)
     grade
               tutor
1 93.60010 Anastasia
2 84.59462 Anastasia
3 79.06581 Anastasia
4 61.45601 Anastasia
5 73.03190 Anastasia
6 73.46387 Anastasia
> t.test(formula = grade ~ tutor, data=tutor_grades, var.equal=TRUE)
        Two Sample t-test
data: grade by tutor
t = 1.1026, df = 31, p-value = 0.2787
alternative hypothesis: true difference in means between group Anasta
sia and group Bernadette is not equal to 0
95 percent confidence interval:
 -3.053475 10.240356
sample estimates:
 mean in group Anastasia mean in group Bernadette
                72.34231
                                         68.74887
```

# Welch Independent Samples t-test

null hypothesis

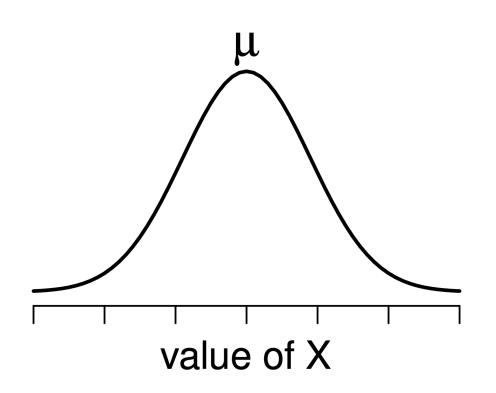


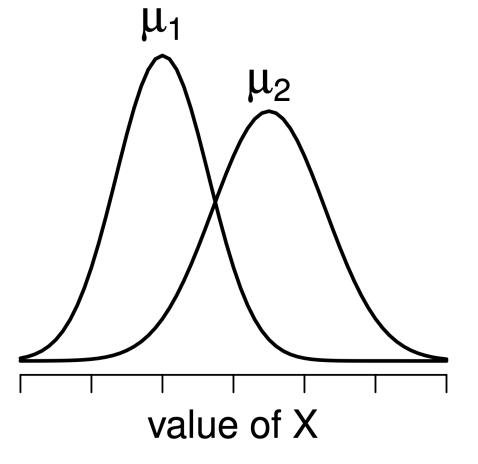


# Welch Independent Samples t-test

- Welch's test is just like Student's, except we don't assume the same stdev for each population
  - Again, there's some tricky math you shouldn't worry about for this course

null hypothesis

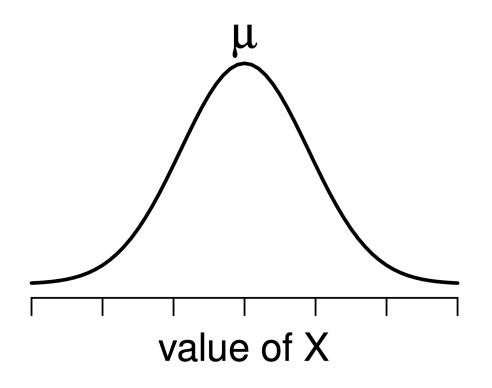


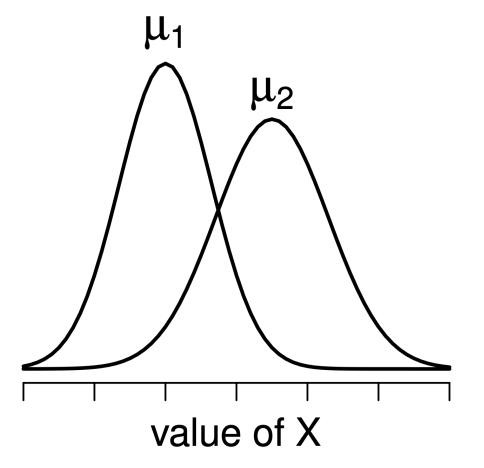


# Welch Independent Samples t-test

- Welch's test is just like Student's, except we don't assume the same stdev for each population
  - Again, there's some tricky math you shouldn't worry about for this course
- Setting var.equal = FALSE in
   t.test() gets you the Welch test
  - This is the default value, so you can also leave the argument out

null hypothesis





- Fields of science have various conventions for reporting the results of statistical tests, which might look something like this:
  - "With a mean grade of 72.3, the Linguistics students scored slightly higher grades than the class average of 67.5 (t(19) = 2.25, p < 0.05); the 95% confidence interval is [67.8, 76.8]"

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- t(19) = 2.25: the t-score with 19 degrees of freedom was 2.25
- p < 0.05 : the p-value was less than a 0.05 significance threshold
- 95% confidence interval: the range the model thinks that the Linguistics student population mean falls into (sometimes abbreviated Cl<sub>95</sub>)