



Large Samples ($n > 29$)

- The **sampling** distribution of $\bar{Y}$ is normally distributed if the sample is random and has at least 30 cases, even if the population distribution is not.
- Thus, we can rely on the Central Limit Theorem, which tells us six things about **sampling** distributions
- Therefore we can use Table A to determine the likelihood of an event (or, the probability of finding a greater difference from H_0 than the one observed in the sample).

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**Student's t:
Tests w/ Small
Samples**

Small Samples ($n < 30$)

- The **sampling** distribution of $\bar{Y}$ is **not** normally distributed when the sample size is small (<30) and the population distribution is not normal. (see Fig. 4.15, p.104)
- Thus, if n is small we cannot rely on the Central Limit Theorem, and therefore can't use Table A to determine the likelihood of an event (or, the probability of finding a greater difference from H_0 than the one observed in the sample)

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OUTLINE

- Catchup / Questions / Breathe
 - Short lecture... lots of time... let's use it... **now** :)
- Student's "t" Distribution
 - Small Samples ($n < 30$) can't use "z"
 - Degrees of Freedom
 - Calculated vs. Critical Values
 - Table B
- Examples
- Connection to Confidence Intervals

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The t-distribution

If we assume that the *population* distribution (not sampling distribution) of a variable is normal, then for a random sample of any size n (even 30 or more),

$$t = \frac{\bar{Y} - \hat{\mu}}{\hat{\sigma}_{\bar{Y}}}$$

is called the (Student) t distribution, with $(n - 1)$ degrees of freedom.

"Student" = pseudonym of Guinness statistician/chemist; see text

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Examining the Distributions

- z-score distribution
- z-test distribution
- one-sample t-test
- two-sample t-test

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Degrees of Freedom - effect

- DF Determines *shape* of t distribution
- The higher the degrees of freedom, the lower the standard deviation of t
 - Mean of t-distribution is still zero, just like z
 - When the degrees of freedom are high enough ($n=30$), the standard deviation = 1 (so the t-distribution is “standard normal distribution” – that is, the t distribution is the z distribution if $n>29$)
 - With lower degrees of freedom, the standard deviation is higher than 1, and the t-distribution is flatter than the z distribution (higher kurtosis)

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Properties of “t” distribution

(Also, see Figure 6.9, p. 181)

- The t distribution is symmetric about 0;
- The t distribution is more dispersed with fewer degrees of freedom (e.g. smaller samples);
- As the d.f. (e.g. sample size) increases, the t distribution approximates a standard normal (z) distribution.
- Otherwise, very much like z
 - Measures/represents a distance between scores
 - The bigger that difference, the smaller the tails

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Small Sample Hypotest: Same Steps

1. **Assumptions**
 - Still must assume the measurements are some LOM (interval or categorical)
 - Still must assume that you have a random sample
 - Now $n < 30$ so can't assume sampling distrib is normal, so we need t distribution, so have to assume that the population distribution is normal
2. **Hypotheses**
3. **Calculate test statistic**
4. **Find p-value**
 - Now use t instead of z
 - Use t table to find “critical” value
 - If the observed t exceeds the critical t, p is less than alpha
 - If the observed t is less than the critical t, p is more than alpha
5. **Conclusions**
 - As before, in terms of *both* the H_0 and H_a

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Degrees of Freedom - idea

- How much do we have to go on?

How much do we have to assume?

- For t-test of a mean, $df = n - 1$
- For a difference of means, $df = n_1 + n_2 - 2$

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Calculated vs Critical “t”

- There's some “critical” t that would be far enough to leave the “alpha” we want

- Must compare that to the “calculated” t
 - Won't get a specific p value
 - Can only say whether $p >$ or $<$ some alpha

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Tabular vs. Calculated "t" (illustrated)

- If $t = -1.07$, then $p > 0.100$
- We would need to observe a difference of 1.341 standard errors to leave only 10% in the tail.
- The difference we observed isn't large enough (the observed difference isn't sufficient) to reject the null, since the error is more than 10% in each direction.

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Table A vs Table B

P smaller when Z bigger

T smaller when p or n bigger

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Finding a "critical t" value

- t_α refers to "t" value corresponding to an area of "a" in one tail, for a given d.f.
- $\alpha \sim p$; = the probability of getting a bigger t
- area depends on the degrees of freedom
- Use Table B to find the p
 - In table A, found z for given p (e.g. 5%)
 - Now, what's "t" for 10% in each tail (t.100) with $n=16$ ($df = 16 - 1 = 15$)?
 - Here's how...

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Table B

Suppose I want to be 90% confident but only have 4 cases (not 30)

Pick the column that has the right tail p
For 90% confidence, p is 0.050 so $t_{.050}$

Pick the row based on sample size ($df=n-1$), so with 4 cases, $df=3$

The body is t 's, not p 's

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Reading Table B (t's instead of z's; p.669)

- A had z's on outside (row/col headers), p's in body
- In B, Row = df, Column = p, t's inside the table
- Sample size (n) for California was 16
- So, $df = n - 1 = 16 - 1 = 15$

If $\alpha = .100$ (10% in tails), confidence = 90%

df	$t_{.100}$	$t_{.050}$	$t_{.025}$	$t_{.010}$	$t_{.005}$
1	3.078	6.314	12.706	31.821	63.657
2	1.886	2.920	4.303	6.965	9.925
3	1.638	2.353	3.182	4.541	5.841
4	1.533	2.132	2.776	3.747	4.604
5	1.476	2.015	2.571	3.365	4.032
6	1.440	1.943	2.447	3.143	3.707
7	1.415	1.895	2.365	2.998	3.499
8	1.397	1.860	2.306	2.896	3.355
9	1.383	1.833	2.262	2.821	3.250
10	1.372	1.812	2.228	2.764	3.169
11	1.363	1.796	2.201	2.718	3.106
12	1.356	1.782	2.179	2.681	3.055
13	1.350	1.771	2.160	2.650	3.012
14	1.345	1.761	2.145	2.624	2.977
15	1.341	1.753	2.131	2.602	2.947
16	1.337	1.746	2.120	2.583	2.921

This is the "tabular t value", the t value (a number of standard errors) high enough to leave only 10% in one tail

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Table B

If d.f. = 5:

- What is $t_{.100}$?
- What is $t_{.010}$?

If $n=16$ (so $df=15$)

- what t gives 90% confidence ($t_{.050}$)?
- what t gives 99% confidence ($t_{.005}$)?

Example above:

- 95% w/ $n=16$

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Table B – bottom of the table...

What if we want to be 95% confident (5% risk) and have more than 100 cases?

The bigger the sample, the closer t is to z

At some point, t & z are the same

This table says >100. Earlier editions said >30. Any number is arbitrary

But use this table, so we're on the same page!

df	Confidence Level				
	80%	90%	95%	98%	99%
1	3.078	4.314	17.706	31.821	63.656
10	1.378	1.759	2.093	2.559	2.861
20	1.325	1.725	2.080	2.518	2.845
30	1.310	1.710	2.074	2.508	2.831
40	1.303	1.703	2.069	2.500	2.827
50	1.299	1.699	2.065	2.497	2.825
60	1.296	1.696	2.063	2.495	2.824
80	1.292	1.692	2.061	2.493	2.823
100	1.290	1.690	2.060	2.492	2.822
∞	1.288	1.688	2.058	2.491	2.821

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1. Assumptions

- We assume **interval data**, since we're using a mean and calculating the standard error based on a mean & standard deviation (which only intervals have!).
- But we don't have a large sample (since $n < 30$) so we *cannot* assume that the sampling distribution is normal, and must assume that the **population distribution is normal**.
- We always assume a **random sample** (though it sometimes isn't).

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An Example Test w/ Table B...

Last week, did a hypothesis test that the mean years of education in the South is less than the U.S. as a whole

There were 411 cases (>29) so we could assume the sampling distribution was normal.

But what if we had a smaller group, with < 30 cases?

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2. Null and Alternative Hypotheses:

$H_0: \mu_{CA} = 12.88$ (No difference in schooling between CA & US)

$H_a: \mu_{CA} < 12.88$ (Mean years of schooling lower in CA than US)

3. Test Statistic

$$t = \frac{\bar{Y}_{CA} - 12.884}{s_{\bar{Y}_{CA}}} = \frac{12.084 - 12.884}{0.747}$$

$$t = -1.07$$

Interpretation: The mean number of years of education of California respondents was 1.07 standard errors away from the mean of respondents nationally.

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Example Small Sample Hypotest

Education - Highest Year of School Completed

Region	Mean	Std Dev	Std. Error
U.S. (n=1510)	12.884	2.984	0.077
South (n=411)	12.460	3.352	0.165
Non-South (n=1099)	13.043	2.819	0.085
California (n=16)	12.084	2.987	0.747

Note: The California results are based on pure speculation. ☹

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P-value:

If $t = -1.07$, then $p > 0.100$. . Since that p-value is very high ($>10\%$ so $>5\%$), there is too much probability of getting this difference just due to chance, which means too much risk that we would be wrong if we rejected the null hypothesis.

Conclusion: Since our p-value exceeds conventional levels of significance, we cannot reject the null hypothesis. We cannot conclude that educational attainment in California is any different than in the U.S. as a whole.

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Small Sample Conf. Interval

- Just like with large sample – sample formula
- Only difference: Use t table instead of z

$$\bar{Y} \pm (t^* \hat{\sigma}_{\bar{Y}}) \approx \bar{Y} \pm \left(t^* \frac{s}{\sqrt{n}} \right)$$

- Still a mean plus/minus some # of standard deviations; just get a *different* # of them since $n < 30$.

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In-class demo (10/23/25)...

A. My sample		C. Hypothesis Test	
All five steps!		All five steps!	
a	13	1. Assumptions	
b	16	Random sample	
c	17	Interval variable	
d	15	Population distribution is normal (because $n < 30$)	
e	17	2. Hypotheses	
Univariate Statistics		Ha: $\mu > 10$	
n	5	Ho: $\mu = 10$	
Mean	15.6	3. Test Statistic	
StdDev	1.67332	$t = (10 - 15.6) / 0.74833$	
S.E. Mean	$1.67332 / \sqrt{5} = 0.74833$	-7.483334774	
Conf.Int.	2.776	4. P Value	
Margin:	$2.776 * 0.74833 = 2.07737$	Table B gives a critical 't' of 2.776, for a sample size of 5 (df=4) and 2.5% tail. Since the calc t of -7.483 is larger than the critical t of 2.776 then the p value (the likelihood of being wrong if I reject the null) is smaller than 2.5%	
Conf.Int.	$15.6 \pm 2.776 * 0.74833 = 15.6 \pm 2.07737 = 13.52263$	5. Conclusion	
Interp:	We're 95% confident about an interval that doesn't contain 10.	Since the observed (sample) mean is -7.48 standard errors from the hypothesized mean, and we needed it to be 2.776 standard errors away, our sample is different enough from the null to be confident that the population probably differs from it. We can reject the null, that ' $\mu = 10$ ', and can support the alternative, that ' $\mu > 10$ '.	

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In-class demo...

- You're going to these things (*by hand*) in lab:
 - Construct a set of sample data (*on paper, not in SPSS*)
 - Construct (& interpret!) a 95% confidence interval
 - Conduct a hypothesis test (*all five steps; $\alpha = .05$*)
 - Compare the results – they should be consistent!
- I'll do a quick demo in Excel – you shouldn't ☺
 - I'll paste a screenshot of that here afterwards.
 - You can mimic the layout, but don't have to do
 - But you do *have* get to *do the math* – I want to *see the work*
- First, I need small sample of students' units...

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In-class demo (3/27/25)...

A. My sample		C. Hypothesis Test	
All five steps!		All five steps!	
a	12	1. Assumptions	
b	15	Random sample	
c	12	Interval variable	
d	19	Population distribution is normal (because $n < 30$)	
e	14	2. Hypotheses	
Univariate Statistics		Ha: $\mu > 12$	
n	5	Ho: $\mu = 12$	
Mean	14.4	3. Test Statistic	
StdDev	2.88097	$t = (12 - 14.4) / 1.28841$	
S.E. Mean	$2.88097 / \sqrt{5} = 1.28841$	-1.862761262	
Conf.Int.	2.776	4. P Value	
Margin:	$2.776 * 1.28841 = 3.57663$	Table B gives a critical 't' of 2.776, for a sample size of 5 (df=4) and 2.5% tail. Since the calc t of -1.863 is smaller than the critical t of 2.776 then the p value (the likelihood of being wrong if I reject the null) is larger than 2.5%	
Conf.Int.	$14.4 \pm 3.57663 = 14.4 \pm 3.57663 = 10.82337$	5. Conclusion	
Interp:	We're 95% confident about an interval that does contain 12.	Since the observed (sample) mean is -1.86 standard errors from the hypothesized mean, and we needed it to be 2.776 standard errors away, our sample isn't different enough from the null to be confident that the population probably differs from it. We can't reject the null, that ' $\mu = 12$ ', and can't support the alternative, that ' $\mu > 12$ '.	

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Example: Small Sample CI vs Hypotest

- Let's make a dataset of units that one row is taking.
- Let's estimate, with 95% confidence, how many units students in the full population take on average.
- Let's conduct a hypothesis test (all five steps; $\alpha = .05$) for whether the average student of the population takes more than 10 units.
- Let's compare the results of the CI and hypothesis test.
 - Are they consistent?

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In-class demo (4/8/24)...

A. My sample		C. Hypothesis Test	
All five steps!		All five steps!	
a	16	1. Assumptions	
b	10	Random sample	
c	13	Interval variable	
d	13	Population distribution is normal (because $n < 30$)	
e	13	2. Hypotheses	
Univariate Statistics		Ha: $\mu > 12$	
n	6	Ho: $\mu = 12$	
Mean	13	3. Test Statistic	
StdDev	2.44949	$t = (12 - 13) / 1.22474$	
S.E. Mean	$2.44949 / \sqrt{6} = 1.22474$	-0.816496581	
Conf.Int.	3.182	4. P Value	
Margin:	$3.182 * 1.22474 = 3.89714$	Table B gives a critical 't' of 3.182, for a sample size of 4 (df=3) and 2.5% tail. Since the calc t of -0.816 is smaller than the critical t of 3.182 then the p value (the likelihood of being wrong if I reject the null) is larger than 2.5%	
Conf.Int.	$13 \pm 3.89714 = 13 \pm 3.89714 = 9.10286$	5. Conclusion	
Interp:	We're 95% confident about an interval that does contain 12.	Since the observed (sample) mean is -0.82 standard errors from the hypothesized mean, and we needed it to be 3.182 standard errors away, our sample isn't different enough from the null to be confident that the population probably differs from it. We can't reject the null, that ' $\mu = 12$ ', and can't support the alternative, that ' $\mu > 12$ '.	

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In-class demo (10/26/23)...

A. My sample	C. Hypothesis Test
a. 17	All five steps!
b. 16	1. Assumptions
c. 10	Random sample
d. 17	Interval variable
e. 14	Population distribution is normal (because $n < 30$)
Univariate Statistics	2. Hypotheses
n: 5	Ha: $\mu > 12$
Mean: 14.8	H0: $\mu = 12$
StdDev: 2.94958	3. Test Statistic
S.E. Mean: $2.94958 / \sqrt{5} = 1.31909$	$t = (12 - 14.8) / 1.31909 = -2.12674522$
Crit.t (table B): 2.776	4. P Value
B. Confidence Interval:	Table B gives a critical "t" of 2.776, for a sample size of 5 ($df=4$) and 2.5% tail. Since the calc. t of -2.123 is smaller than the critical t of 2.776 then the p value (the likelihood of being wrong if I reject the null) is larger than 2.5%
Margin: $2.776 * 1.31909 = 3.6618$	5. Conclusion
Conf.Int.: 14.8 ± 3.6618	Since the observed (sample) mean is -2.12 standard errors from the hypothesized mean, and we needed it to be 2.776 standard errors away, our sample isn't different enough from the null to be confident that the population probably differs from it. We can't reject the null, that " $\mu > 12$ ", and can't support the alternative, that " $\mu > 12$ ".
Interp: We're 95% confident about an interval that does contain 12.	
D. Consistency: Both the CI and the Hypotest suggest that the population parameter might be 12.	

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In-class demo (11/1/21)...

A. My sample	C. Hypothesis Test
Allison: 13	All five steps!
Arakya: 11	1. Assumptions
Edrik: 10	Random sample
Aaron: 17	Interval variable
Univariate Statistics	2. Hypotheses
n: 4	Ha: $\mu > 12$
Mean: 12.75	H0: $\mu = 12$
StdDev: 3.09570	3. Test Statistic
S.E. Mean: $3.0957 / \sqrt{4} = 1.54785$	$t = (12 - 12.75) / 1.54785 = -0.484543076$
Crit.t (table B): 3.182	4. P Value
B. Confidence Interval:	Table B gives a critical "t" of 3.182, for a sample size of 4 ($df=3$) and 2.5% tail. Since the calc. t of -0.485 is smaller than the critical t of 3.182 then the p value (the likelihood of being wrong if I reject the null) is larger than 2.5%
Margin: $3.182 * 1.54785 = 4.92526$	5. Conclusion
Conf.Int.: 12.75 ± 4.92526	Since the observed (sample) mean is -0.48 standard errors from the hypothesized mean, and we needed it to be 3.182 standard errors away, our sample isn't different enough from the null to be confident that the population probably differs from it. We can't reject the null, that " $\mu > 12$ ", and can't support the alternative, that " $\mu > 12$ ".
Interp: We're 95% confident about an interval that does contain 12.	
D. Consistency: Both the CI and the Hypotest suggest that the population parameter might be 12.	

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Lab: Small Sample CI and Hypotest

- Construct a set of *sample* data from the *ages* of your group's members (*on paper, not in SPSS* – & not units; that was my demo)
- Construct (& *interpret*!) a 95% confidence interval to estimate the average age in the *population*
- Conduct a hypothesis test (all five steps; $\alpha = .05$) for whether the average age of the *population* is 21.
- Compare the results of your CI interpretation and hypothesis test.
 - Are they consistent? (Hint: they should be!)

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