A New Transformed *t*-test with a Univariate Normal Goodness-of-fit

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Abstract

A new transformed two-sample *t*-test has been proposed for testing equality of two population means for skewed distributions. The method involves transformations of skewed distributions to normality by means of a univariate normal goodness-of-fit approach. The performance of the proposed test is compared with untransformed *t*-test, the non-parametric analogue of *t*-test via Wilcoxon rank sum test and Box-Cox transformed *t*-test where transformation parameter is estimated by the maximum likelihood method using real-life examples and simulation. It reveals that the proposed new test is appropriate for estimating the level of significance and is more powerful than the untransformed *t*-test, Wilcoxon rank sum test and Box-Cox transformed *t*-test via maximum likelihood method for skewed distributions.

Key Words: Two-sample t-test, Wilcoxon test, transformation, Goodness-of-fit, power of the test.

1. Background

Let $X = (X_1, X_2, ..., X_m)$ and $Y = (Y_1, Y_2, ..., Y_n)$ be two independent random samples from two populations having means $\mu_x = E(X)$ and $\mu_y = E(Y)$, respectively. We wish to test the null hypothesis

 $H_{01}: \mu_x = \mu_y$

that is, the two populations two samples are obtained have the same mean. For testing H_{01} , the standard statistical models usually assume that the two population distributions are normal with the common unknown variance σ^2 . Under this assumption, a pooled estimator of σ^2 is given by

$$S_p^2 = \frac{(m-1)S_x^2 + (n-1)S_y^2}{m+n-2}$$

where S_x^2 and S_y^2 are sample variances of the two samples X and Y, respectively. Under H_{01} , the test statistic T given by

$$T = \frac{\bar{X} - \bar{Y}}{S_p \sqrt{\frac{1}{m} + \frac{1}{n}}}$$

follows Student's *t*-distribution with m + n - 2 degrees of freedom. This test is uniformly most powerful unbiased test (see, e.g., Lehmann 1994), and is omnipresent in statistical practice for making inference about the equality of the two population means.

In real life, the assumption of normality is often invalid or unmet. As such, one option is to use the nonparametric analog of *t*-test, namely, Wilcoxon rank sum test (Wilcoxon 1945) which does not require the normality of the data for the validity of the inference. Alternately, one may use the *t*-test to transformed data following an appropriate transformation.

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With transformation an option, the common practice is to re-express the data to achieve the normality and then implement t-test (e.g., see Mosteller and Tukey 1977; Atkinson 1985). In an oft-cited paper, Box and Cox (1964) suggested a power transformation for non-negative observations to achieve normality. Since then, Box-Cox transformation has widely been used for of the problems of statistical inference.

In this article, a new method is proposed to estimate the Box-Cox transformation by means of the univariate normal goodness-of-fit approach. The idea is to the combine the Box-Cox transformed data from two samples to fit into a normal distribution to estimate the transformation parameter, and then implement the *t*-test to the transformed data. The new transformed *t*-test outperforms existing transformed t-test, and the nonparametric Wilcoxon rank sum test or the Student's t-test in the violation of the normality.

2. Methods

In this section, we review some popular tests for comparing two groups with respect to their locations (means or medians). Section 2.1 presents a brief review of nonparametric Wilcoxon rank sum test for the completeness of the comparison. A Box-Cox transformed t-test achieved via a maximum likelihood method (MLM) is discussed in section 2.2. The new transformation using the univariate normal goodness-of-fit is discussed in section 3. Examples from a real-life situation and a simulated data appear in section 4 to demonstrate the application and performance of the proposed test as compared with the other tests described. A simulation study is carried out in section 5 to compare the finite sample performance of all tests considered in this article. Results and discussion from examples and simulation study appear in section 6. The conclusions of the study appear in section 7.

2.1 Wilcoxon Rank Sum Test

The nonparametric Wilcoxon rank-sum test, also known as the Mann-Whitney U test, is well-known and preferable to the two-sample *t*-test when the two populations the samples come from depart from normality. Let $X = \{X_1, ..., X_m\}$ and $Y = \{Y_1, ..., Y_n\}$ be two independent samples from distributions with continuous cdfs F_x and F_y having location parameters μ_x and μ_y , respectively. Let us also consider the following two definitions (for more details, see Desu and Raghavarao 2004; Tamhane and Dunlop 2000):

Definition 1: The random variable *X* is stochastically larger than *Y* if $P(X > u) \ge P(Y > u)$ or, equivalently, $F_x(u) \le F_y(u)$

for all real numbers u with a strict inequality for at least some u. The situation may also be denoted by $F_x < F_v$ or $\mu_x > \mu_v$.

Definition 2: Two random variables *X* and *Y* have identical distributions if P

$$(X > Y) = P(X < Y) = 1/2$$

This situation is denoted by $F_x = F_y$ and it follows that when X and Y have identical distributions, they will have the same median or mean, say, $\mu_x = \mu_y$. Therefore, one can test the equality of two population medians using H_{02} : $F_x = F_y$ or, equivalently, H_{02} : $\mu_x = \mu_y$.

In order to test H_{02} , the Mann-Whitney (U) test compares each $X_i \in X$ with each $Y_j \in Y$ and is defined as follows:

 $U_{yx} = \# \text{ of pairs } (X_i, Y_j) \text{ for which } X_i > Y_j$ It follows that $U_{yx} = \sum_{i=1}^m R_i - \frac{m(m+1)}{2}$, where $R_1 < R_2 < \dots < R_m$ are the ordered ranks of "m" xobservations in the combined sample. On the other hand, the Wilcoxon rank sum test (W) is defined in terms of "sum of X ranks in the combined sample": $W_x = \sum_{i=1}^m R_i$. It is easy to verify that W_x and U_{yx} are

connected by the equation $W_x = U_{yx} + \frac{m(m+1)}{2}$. In view of this relationship, one can use either of the statistics W_x or U_{yx} , or similarly defined W_y or U_{xy} for testing H_{02} . For example, given a level of significance α , the inference procedure using Wilcoxon rank sum statistic can be made as follows:

- 1) Reject H_{02} against H_{2a} : $F_x < F_y (\mu_x > \mu_y)$ if W_x is larger i.e., p-value $= P(W \ge W_x) \le \alpha$.
- 2) Reject H_{02} against H_{2b} : $F_x > F_y (\mu_x < \mu_y)$ if W_y is larger i.e., p-value = $P(W \ge W_y) \le \alpha$.
- 3) Reject H_{02} against H_{2c} : $F_x < F_y$ or $F_x > F_y$ (or $\mu_x \neq \mu_y$) using $W_{min} = min(W_x, W_y)$ or $W_{max} = max(W_x, W_y)$ if the *p*-value = $2P(W \le W_{min}) = 2P(W \ge W_{max}) \le \alpha$.

2.2 Box-Cox Transformed Test

An alternative to Wilcoxon rank sum test, one can use the Box-Cox transformation (Box and Cox 1964) to achieve normality before applying *t*-test when the data deviate from normality. Let $X = (X_1, ..., X_m)$ and $Y = (Y_1, ..., Y_n)$ be non-negative random variables having the common variance, deviating from normality. Given a scalar λ , the Box-Cox power transformation to the sample X, $X(\lambda)$, is defined by

$$X_{i}(\lambda) = \begin{cases} (X_{i}^{\lambda} - 1)/\lambda, & \text{if } \lambda \neq 0\\ \log(X_{i}), & \text{if } \lambda = 0 \end{cases}$$
(1)

The transformation to Y_i , $Y_i(\lambda)$ is defined in a similar way.

Let $\overline{X}(\lambda) = m^{-1} \sum_{i=1}^{m} X_i(\lambda)$ be the mean of the transformed sample $X(\lambda)$. Let $\overline{Y}(\lambda)$ be defined similarly. Let $S^2(\lambda)$ be the pooled maximum likelihood estimate (MLE) of the common variance to the transformed data given by

$$S^{2}(\lambda) = \{1/(m+n)\} \left[\sum_{i=1}^{m} \{X_{i}(\lambda) - \overline{X}(\lambda)\}^{2} + \sum_{j=1}^{n} \{Y_{j}(\lambda) - \overline{Y}(\lambda)\}^{2} \right]$$

Given the transformation (1) is successful to transform the data to fit a normal model, the profiled loglikelihood function for the transformation parameter λ is

 $l(\lambda) = -\{(m+n)/2\} \log S^2(\lambda) + \lambda \{\sum_{i=1}^m \log X_i + \sum_{j=1}^n \log Y_j\}$ Box and Cox (1964) proposed to estimate λ by the MLE, $\hat{\lambda}_l$. Then, the two-sided transformed *t*-test is to reject $H_{01}: \mu_x = \mu_y$ if $|T(\hat{\lambda}_l)|$ is greater than the Student's *t* critical value $t_{\alpha/2,m+n-2}$, where $T(\hat{\lambda}_l) = \frac{\overline{x}(\hat{\lambda}_l) - \overline{Y}(\hat{\lambda}_l)}{S(\hat{\lambda}_l) \sqrt{1/m+1/n}}$.

The theoretical aspects of the Box-Cox transformed data analysis described above have been reported in literature. For examples, Hinkley (1975) and Hernandez and Johnson (1980) investigated the asymptotic properties of the parameter estimates; Bickel and Doksum (1981) critically examined the behavior of the asymptotic variances of the parameter estimates for regression and analysis of variance situations; Chen and Loh (1992) and Chen (1995) proved that the Box-Cox transformed t-test is typically more efficient asymptotically than the t-test without transformation. The use of transformed ttest is also justified by Chen and Islam (2007) by fitting a t distribution to transformed data.

3. The New Proposed Transformed t-test

Viewing the transformation to normality as the problem of normal goodness-of-fit, we propose a new transformation which is straightforward and easy to implement using any standard statistical software. The idea is to apply a univariate normal goodness-of-fit to the transformed data and then apply t-test to the transformed data. This method is expected to be a better approach than trying to achieve the normality by maximizing the likelihood function $l(\lambda)$ described in previous section.

Given the transformation $X(\lambda)$ is successful or nearly successful in achieving normality, it is expected that $Z_x(\lambda) = \frac{X(\lambda) - \mu_x(\lambda)}{\sigma_x(\lambda)} = (Z_{1,x}(\lambda), Z_{2,x}(\lambda), ..., Z_{m,x}(\lambda))$ represents a random sample from a N(0,1) distribution. With the similar argument, $Z_y(\lambda) = \frac{Y(\lambda) - \mu_y(\lambda)}{\sigma_y(\lambda)} = (Z_{1,y}(\lambda), Z_{2,y}(\lambda), ..., Z_{n,y}(\lambda))$ represents a random sample from a N(0,1) distribution. Then, by combining the two samples together, $Z_{x,y}(\lambda) = (Z_x(\lambda), Z_y(\lambda))$ represents a sample

$$Z_{x,y}(\lambda) = \left(Z_{1,x}(\lambda), Z_{2,x}(\lambda), \dots, Z_{m,x}(\lambda), Z_{1,y}(\lambda), Z_{2,y}(\lambda), \dots, Z_{n,y}(\lambda) \right)$$

of size N = m + n from a N(0,1) distribution, which for the simplicity of the presentation is written as: $Z(\lambda) = (Z_1(\lambda), Z_2(\lambda), ..., Z_N(\lambda))$

We propose to estimate λ by $\hat{\lambda}_n$ in a way that $Z(\hat{\lambda}_n)$ is as close as possible to the true N(0,1) distribution. Viewing this problem as a goodness-of-fit to normal distribution, we test the hypothesis: $H_0: Z_1(\lambda), Z_2(\lambda), \dots, Z_N(\lambda)$ is coming from a N(0,1) distribution, against $H_1: Z_1(\lambda), Z_2(\lambda), \dots, Z_N(\lambda)$ is not a N(0,1) distribution.

Following Shapiro and Wilk (1965), we use the test statistic $W_Z(\lambda)$ to test H_0 , which is given by $W_Z(\lambda) = \frac{\left[\sum_{i=1}^{N} a_i Z_{(i)}(\lambda)\right]^2}{\sum_{i=1}^{N} (Z_i(\lambda) - \overline{Z_i}(\lambda))^2}$, where $Z_{(i)}(\lambda), i = 1, ..., N$ represents the ith order statistic of the sample $Z(\lambda)$, $\overline{Z_i}(\lambda) = \left(\sum_{i=1}^{N} Z_i(\lambda)\right)/N$ is the sample mean, $(a_1, ..., a_N) = \frac{m^T V^{-1}}{(m^T V^{-1} V^{-1} m)^{1/2}}$, $m = (m_1, ..., m_N)^T$, $m_i = E\left(Z_{(i)}(\lambda)\right), i = 1, ..., N$, is the expected value of the ith order statistic $Z_{(i)}(\lambda)$, $V = (v_{i,j})$ is the variance-covariance matrix of order $N \times N$, and $v_{i,j} = Cov\left(Z_{(i)}(\lambda), Z_{(j)}(\lambda)\right), i, j = 1, ... N$, is the covariance between ith and jth order statistics.

While the value of $W_Z(\lambda)$ lies between zero and one, the small value of $W_Z(\lambda)$ leads to the rejection of normality, whereas a value close to one indicates normality. In other words, given a level of significance α one may reject the null hypothesis if *p*-value $p(\lambda) = P(W \le w_Z(\lambda)) \le \alpha$ and accept otherwise. We propose to estimate λ by observing the maximum *p*-value associated with $W_Z(\lambda)$ over all possible values of λ to achieve the desired normality of the transformed data. In other words, the new estimate $\hat{\lambda}_n$ using the goodness-of-fit to N(0,1) distribution satisfies the equation

$$p(\hat{\lambda}_n) = \max_{\lambda \in [a,b]} P(W \le w_Z(\lambda))$$

Once $\hat{\lambda}_n$ is obtained, we re-express the original samples and apply Student's *t*-test to the transformed data.

It is to be noted that, due to the popularity of Shapiro and Wilk test for assessing normality of the sample, any standard statistical software such as SAS, SPSS, STATA, R, etc. has functions or procedures

to implement this test. In this article, we employed the software R in all examples and simulation to obtain the optimum $\hat{\lambda}_n$. The search for $\hat{\lambda}_n$ is made over the interval [-1,1] with an increment of 0.1 written hereafter as $\lambda \in \{-1: 0.1: 1\}$.

Below is an algorithm for the estimate $\hat{\lambda}_n$ and the transformed test using $\hat{\lambda}_n$. Given X and , and a fixed λ :

- 1) Obtain the transformations to X and Y, $X(\lambda)$ and $Y(\lambda)$ using equation (1).
- 2) Estimate $Z_x(\lambda) = \frac{X(\lambda) \bar{X}(\lambda)}{S_x(\lambda)}$ and $Z_y(\lambda) = \frac{Y(\lambda) \bar{Y}(\lambda)}{S_y(\lambda)}$, where $S_x(\lambda)$ and $S_y(\lambda)$ are estimated using the transformed data by $S_x(\lambda) = \sqrt{\sum_{i=1}^m (x_i(\lambda) \bar{x}(\lambda))^2 / m}$ and $S_y(\lambda) = \sqrt{\sum_{j=1}^n (y_j(\lambda) \bar{y}(\lambda))^2 / n}$. Note, the term $X(\lambda) \bar{X}(\lambda)$ allow element-wise subtraction

of sample mean $\overline{X}(\lambda)$ from the vector $X(\lambda)$ and similar operation applies to $Y(\lambda) - \overline{Y}(\lambda)$. These operations are allowed by any standard statistical software.

- 3) Combine the two samples together to form $Z(\lambda) = (Z_1(\lambda), Z_2(\lambda), ..., Z_N(\lambda))$, where N = m + n.
- 4) Compare $Z(\lambda)$ with the N(0,1) distribution using the Shapiro-Wilk goodness-of-fit and find the *p*-value.
- 5) Repeat steps (1) through (4) for all $\lambda \in \{-1: 0.1: 1\}$.
- 6) Select the maximum *p*-value among all *p*-values from steps (1) through (5).
- 7) Identify the $\hat{\lambda}_n$ corresponding to the maximum *p*-value in step (6).
- 8) Obtain $X(\hat{\lambda}_n)$ and $Y(\hat{\lambda}_n)$.
- 9) Perform usual *t*-test on the basis of transformed data in step (8) and decide about the acceptance or rejection of the null hypothesis comparing with critical value of *t* distribution.

4. Applications

In this section, we will present two examples, one with real life data and the other with simulated data to show application and performance of various tests in making inference about acceptance or rejection of the equality of two population means.

Example 1 (Remission times of leukemia patients): The data for this example are remission times, in weeks, for 40 leukemia patients randomly assigned in two treatments X and Y, and appear in Lawless (2003). We wish to test the equality of location parameters (means or medians) using various tests discussed in this article.

<i>X</i> :	1	3	3	6	7	7	10	12	14	15	18	19	22	26	28	29	34	40	48	49
<i>Y</i> :	1	1	2	2	3	4	5	8	8	9	11	12	14	16	18	21	27	31	38	44

The summary statistics for the sample of treatment X are: mean=19.55 and skewness=0.66; for the sample Y, mean=13.75 and skewness=1.05. From the values of the skewness, both treatments X and Y seem to have positively skewed distributions. We also carry out a test to see if X and Y actually come from skewed distributions. To this end, we apply the Kolmogorov-Smirnov goodness-of-fit to X and Y to see if they come from exponential distributions, with means $\mu_x = 19$ and $\mu_y = 14$. The result of Kolmogorov-Smirnov test to X is: ks = 0.1214 and *p-value* = 0.9298, which indicates that the sample data on treatment X come from an exponential distribution with mean $\mu_x = 19$. In a similar way, we conclude that the data on treatment Y come from an exponential distribution with mean $\mu_y = 14$ (ks = 0.0853, *p-value* = 0.9986).

The calculated value of the various test statistics along with the corresponding p-values for the remission time data are reported in Table 1 to evaluate the performance of the inference being made. It follows that all four tests accept the null hypothesis of equality of the two treatment means.

Tests	Test statistic	<i>p</i> -value	λ
t	1.3376	0.1890	-
W	250.50	0.1759	-
t(l)	1.4071	0.1675	0.3
t(n)	1.4071	0.1675	0.3

Table 1 Test statistics and *p*-values for various tests for remission times data

t: Student's *t* test; *w*: Wilcoxon test; t(l): transformed *t* test by a maximum likelihood method; t(n): new transformed *t* test by a normal goodness-of-fit method.

Example 2 Data for this example come from two simulated samples from a gamma G(2,1) distribution and are given below:

<i>X</i> :	1.06	1.88	3.68	1.13	2.08	4.84	1.42	1.29	0.37	2.43
<i>Y</i> :	0.93	1.94	1.05	2.94	1.15	1.93	3.45	1.55	1.14	1.28
	1.65	1.69	2.28	0.91	2.68					

For the convenience of the presentation, we round up the values of the simulated data to two decimal places and applied various tests on the rounded data. The summary statistics of two simulated samples are as follows: for sample X, mean=2.02 and skewness=1.17; for sample Y, mean=1.77 and skewness=0.89.

Since the samples X and Y come from the same parent distribution G(2,1) with identical mean and variance, we expect that various test statistics would be able to assess the equality of the two means with stronger evidence. The results of various tests with corresponding *p*-values are reported in Table 2.

Test	Test statistic	<i>p</i> -value	λ
t	0.5840	0.5649	-
W	80.000	0.8065	-
t(l)	0.1514	0.8810	0.2
t(n)	0.0217	0.9829	0.0

Table 2 Test statistics and *p*-values for various tests for simulated data from G(2,1) distribution

On the basis of the results of various tests in Table 2, it follows that all four tests provide evidence to accept the null hypothesis of the equality of two means. It is to be noted that the proposed t(n) test provides the strongest evidence in favor of the null hypothesis, with a *p*-value of 0.9829.

5. Simulation Study

In this section, we carry out a simulation study to compare the finite sample performance of the various tests described in this article, along with the proposed *t*-test. All simulations are performed by using the statistical software R, with values of $\lambda \in \{-1: 0.1: 1\}$. The samples X and Y are simulated from $G(\alpha, \beta)$ population where α is the shape parameter and β is the scale parameter. Note that the skewness of $G(\alpha, \beta)$ distribution is $\gamma_1 = 2/\sqrt{\alpha}$. In simulations, we choose different values of the parameter α to allow varying levels of skewness of the simulated samples. We fix the value of the parameter β at 1 since it does not affect the skewness of the simulated data. Under alternative, we choose different values of the

mean difference, $\Delta = \mu_x - \mu_y$ arbitrarily from the set {0.15, 0.25, 0.50, 0.65, 0.85, 1.25} to ensure a testing power away from 0 and 1 for the purpose of the comparisons. In all simulations, the Monte Carlo size is 5,000. The power of various tests is estimated from the proportion of rejection of null hypothesis under alternative over a Monte Carlo simulation of size 5,000 at 5% level of significance.

In a similar manner, the level of significance is estimated from the proportion of the rejection of the null hypothesis over a Monte Carlo simulation of size 5,000 at 5% level of significance when the null hypothesis is true. Table 3 provides the values of the parameter α used in the simulation of samples X and Y to allow varying values of the skewness.

Shape	
parameter	Skewness
α	γ_1
0.25	4.0
0.5	2.8
1	2.0
2	1.4
10	0.6

Table 3 Values of α and γ_1 used in simulations of X and Y

Table 4 provides estimated power of the simulation study for varying values of shape parameter α , sample sizes (m, n) and the mean difference $\Delta = \mu_x - \mu_y$. Table 5 provides estimated rejection rates under the null distribution at 5% level of significance, along with mean and standard deviation of the estimated transformation parameter λ by maximum likelihood $(\hat{\lambda}_l)$ and univariate goodness-of-fit technique $(\hat{\lambda}_n)$.

6. Result Discussions

The result of example 1 in section 4 suggests that all four tests applied to compare the remission time of leukemia patients with respect to the location parameters (means or medians) lead to the identical conclusion of equality of two locations with *p*-values of 0.1890 (Student's *t*), 0.1759 (Wilcoxon test) and 0.1675 (both transformed tests). However, given the fact that the remission time of leukemia patients come from skewed distributions (treatments *X* and *Y* seem to follow exponential distributions with means $\mu_x = 19$ and $\mu_y = 14$, as confirmed by Kolmogorov-Smirnov test), one may be doubtful about the conclusion of the Student's *t*-test. The Wilcoxon test is an alternative to overcome this problem, which does not require the normality of the parent population the sample comes from. It is to be noted that the Wilcoxon test assumes that the two distributions (medians). On the other hand, the conclusion of both transformed *t* tests appears to be valid because transformations were intended to achieve normality.

Looking at the results of example 2, it is evident that the new test t(n) provides the strongest evidence (*p*-value=0.9829) among all tests in favor of the null hypothesis when X and Y actually come from the gamma G(2,1) distribution with identical mean = 2 and variance = 2. The second strongest evidence is given by t(l), following Wilcoxon test and Student's *t*-test. In order to provide justifiable confidence in the performance of several tests, the common practice is to carry out a simulation study where results can be compared from the repetition of the tests applied to known distributions and parameters. To this end, let us have a critical look at the simulation results.

			$\Delta =$	0.15		$\Delta = 0.25$					
α	(<i>m</i> , <i>n</i>)	t	w	t(l)	t(n)	t	w	t(l)	<i>t</i> (<i>n</i>)		
	(10,10)	0.173	0.478	0.584	0.657	0.341	0.656	0.766	0.817		
	(15,15)	0.199	0.668	0.761	0.872	0.399	0.838	0.911	0.965		
0.25	(20,20)	0.219	0.799	0.873	0.958	0.463	0.936	0.968	0.993		
	(25,25)	0.255	0.879	0.934	0.985	0.506	0.971	0.990	0.999		
	(15,10)	0.169	0.577	0.702	0.809	0.362	0.740	0.852	0.888		
	(20,15)	0.212	0.722	0.822	0.937	0.413	0.874	0.941	0.980		
	(25,20)	0.241	0.825	0.908	0.977	0.481	0.944	0.978	0.996		
			$\Delta =$	0.15		$\Delta = 0.25$					
	(10,10)	0.078	0.180	0.230	0.270	0.159	0.324	0.396	0.462		
	(15,15)	0.097	0.264	0.332	0.426	0.200	0.469	0.551	0.678		
	(20,20)	0.120	0.354	0.422	0.550	0.241	0.599	0.668	0.807		
0.50	(25,25)	0.131	0.420	0.505	0.646	0.263	0.705	0.769	0.890		
	(15,10)	0.080	0.241	0.311	0.431	0.173	0.392	0.490	0.645		
	(20,15)	0.102	0.299	0.387	0.538	0.224	0.528	0.629	0.793		
	(25,20)	0.124	0.388	0.490	0.648	0.257	0.626	0.726	0.868		
			$\Delta =$	0.50		$\Delta = 0.65$					
	(10,10)	0.222	0.301	0.362	0.403	0.346	0.452	0.516	0.569		
	(15,15)	0.303	0.458	0.525	0.609	0.453	0.620	0.700	0.784		
	(20,20)	0.379	0.591	0.647	0.740	0.553	0.772	0.811	0.886		
1	(25,25)	0.424	0.682	0.740	0.825	0.638	0.849	0.892	0.941		
	(15,10)	0.259	0.390	0.467	0.561	0.399	0.538	0.627	0.729		
	(20,15)	0.326	0.517	0.600	0.703	0.503	0.689	0.763	0.859		
	(25,20)	0.397	0.615	0.707	0.806	0.600	0.793	0.852	0.923		
			$\Delta =$	0.65		$\Delta = 0.85$					
	(10,10)	0.181	0.196	0.236	0.255	0.274	0.301	0.348	0.376		
	(15,15)	0.250	0.304	0.347	0.372	0.381	0.450	0.502	0.541		
	(20,20)	0.313	0.399	0.445	0.475	0.484	0.587	0.641	0.681		
2	(25,25)	0.365	0.472	0.530	0.570	0.565	0.678	0.730	0.774		
	(15,10)	0.212	0.254	0.312	0.344	0.316	0.371	0.439	0.485		
	(20,15)	0.269	0.330	0.395	0.435	0.430	0.509	0.582	0.632		
	(25,20)	0.334	0.421	0.485	0.526	0.522	0.627	0.689	0.737		
			$\Delta =$	0.85			$\Delta =$	1.25			
	(10,10)	0.087	0.073	0.093	0.100	0.129	0.121	0.138	0.145		
	(15,15)	0.107	0.104	0.121	0.125	0.190	0.183	0.207	0.216		
	(20,20)	0.131	0.132	0.141	0.149	0.239	0.236	0.256	0.265		
10	(25,25)	0.157	0.159	0.172	0.178	0.283	0.289	0.308	0.317		
	(15,10)	0.097	0.091	0.105	0.115	0.146	0.148	0.164	0.174		
	(20,15)	0.120	0.116	0.133	0.141	0.210	0.204	0.232	0.240		
	(25,20)	0.149	0.146	0.163	0.169	0.246	0.249	0.273	0.283		

 Table 4 Simulated power of various tests at 5% significance level over 5,000 samples

]	Level of si	gnificance	e	Ave	rage	S.D		
α	(<i>m</i> , <i>n</i>)	t	W	t(l)	t(n)	$\hat{\lambda}_l$	$\hat{\lambda}_n$	$\hat{\lambda}_l$	$\hat{\lambda}_n$	
	(10,10)	0.031	0.041	0.051	0.054	0.136	0.170	0.062	0.081	
	(15,15)	0.036	0.048	0.056	0.056	0.137	0.167	0.053	0.075	
0.25	(20,20)	0.037	0.050	0.053	0.054	0.137	0.163	0.050	0.061	
	(25,25)	0.042	0.051	0.055	0.056	0.136	0.163	0.048	0.055	
	(15,10)	0.035	0.052	0.055	0.056	0.137	0.168	0.056	0.087	
	(20,15)	0.040	0.047	0.050	0.054	0.138	0.166	0.050	0.065	
	(25,20)	0.039	0.051	0.053	0.055	0.136	0.164	0.049	0.058	
	(10,10)	0.042	0.045	0.054	0.055	0.194	0.226	0.102	0.171	
	(15,15)	0.038	0.036	0.045	0.051	0.200	0.228	0.078	0.115	
	(20,20)	0.040	0.044	0.047	0.050	0.204	0.227	0.065	0.088	
0.50	(25,25)	0.041	0.045	0.047	0.049	0.204	0.226	0.058	0.077	
	(15,10)	0.042	0.044	0.050	0.054	0.198	0.227	0.087	0.132	
	(20,15)	0.043	0.047	0.052	0.053	0.203	0.228	0.070	0.100	
	(25,20)	0.040	0.043	0.047	0.051	0.203	0.227	0.061	0.081	
	(10,10)	0.040	0.040	0.046	0.051	0.241	0.271	0.170	0.254	
	(15,15)	0.047	0.045	0.052	0.055	0.249	0.273	0.130	0.177	
	(20,20)	0.045	0.048	0.049	0.053	0.253	0.271	0.109	0.139	
1	(25,25)	0.043	0.047	0.047	0.049	0.257	0.273	0.096	0.118	
	(15,10)	0.049	0.051	0.057	0.058	0.246	0.274	0.149	0.208	
	(20,15)	0.050	0.049	0.052	0.054	0.250	0.272	0.117	0.153	
	(25,20)	0.044	0.047	0.050	0.053	0.255	0.273	0.102	0.128	
	(10,10)	0.040	0.039	0.047	0.053	0.269	0.293	0.273	0.377	
	(15,15)	0.052	0.046	0.054	0.054	0.271	0.289	0.211	0.270	
	(20,20)	0.046	0.045	0.051	0.054	0.282	0.297	0.175	0.209	
2	(25,25)	0.048	0.048	0.050	0.051	0.289	0.302	0.155	0.181	
	(15,10)	0.044	0.044	0.048	0.051	0.269	0.287	0.236	0.307	
	(20,15)	0.049	0.045	0.052	0.055	0.280	0.297	0.194	0.239	
	(25,20)	0.052	0.049	0.053	0.054	0.279	0.291	0.164	0.193	
	(10,10)	0.047	0.042	0.050	0.053	0.260	0.238	0.565	0.653	
	(15,15)	0.043	0.038	0.046	0.048	0.276	0.276	0.475	0.542	
	(20,20)	0.045	0.044	0.048	0.051	0.304	0.302	0.414	0.462	
10	(25,25)	0.051	0.051	0.052	0.053	0.299	0.307	0.374	0.414	
	(15,10)	0.044	0.043	0.048	0.052	0.276	0.264	0.508	0.586	
	(20,15)	0.052	0.048	0.055	0.056	0.282	0.280	0.443	0.503	
	(25, 20)	0.049	0.046	0.051	0.054	0.292	0.295	0.391	0.437	

Table 5 Estimated rejection rates at 5% level, along with average and standard deviation (S.D) of $\hat{\lambda}$

From simulation results presented in Table 4, it follows that the new transformed test t(n) provides the maximum power for all sample sizes, equal (m = n) and unequal $(m \neq n)$, among all four tests considered. We consider equal sample sizes (m = n) at 10, 15, 20 and 25. Note that the lower value of the shape parameter α corresponds to the higher value of the skewness. To evaluate the performance for varying values of skewness, we consider values of α from 0.25 to 10 with arbitrary increases to its values to cause skewness to decrease from 4 to 0.6 as appeared in Table 3. From the reported results of Table 4, it follows that all tests demonstrate higher power as mean difference Δ and sample size increase. The new test t(n) has always performed best in terms of estimated testing power; the second best has been the t(l)test. However, as expected, the nonparametric test w has demonstrated higher power than the Student's *t*test. Also, the differences in power among four tests have decreased as the skewness of the distribution has decreased. It makes sense because Wilcoxon and transformed tests are expected to perform better for skewed distribution; the higher the skewness, the better is their performance with respect to the testing power.

Regarding the simulated rates under the null hypothesis, it follows from the result of Table 5 that the estimated level of significance is lower than the nominal significance of 5% for Student's *t* throughout the simulation, with estimated values ranging from 0.031 to 0.052, under null hypothesis. Indeed, the estimated levels of significance seem to be underestimated for all sample sizes for highly skewed distributions ($\alpha = 0.25, 0.50$) and approach the nominal level as the skewness decreases ($\alpha = 1, 2, 10$). The estimated rejection rates for Wilcoxon test is close to the nominal level of 5%, with estimated values ranging from 0.036 to 0.052, under null hypothesis. On the other hand, the estimated rejection rates for both versions of transformed tests are comparable at 5% level of significance, with estimated values ranging from 0.045 to 0.057 for t(l) test, and 0.048 to 0.058 for t(n) test, under null hypothesis.

The estimated average and standard deviation of $\hat{\lambda}_l$ and $\hat{\lambda}_n$ over 5,000 simulations under null hypothesis are also reported in Table 5, where the search for $\hat{\lambda}_l$ and $\hat{\lambda}_n$ is made in the interval [-1,1] with an increment of 0.1. It follows that the average and standard deviation of $\hat{\lambda}_l$ and $\hat{\lambda}_n$ depend on the levels of skewness of the distributions, with standard deviation of both decreasing with the increase of the sample sizes for a given value of skewness. In terms of average and standard deviation values of $\hat{\lambda}_l$ and $\hat{\lambda}_n$, similar conclusions apply under the alternative hypothesis where powers are calculated and therefore, are not reported in Table 4 to avoid redundancy.

7. Conclusions

This article proposes a new transformed *t*-test where the Box-Cox transformation to normality is achieved via a univariate normal goodness-of-fit test. To this end, we i) apply Shapiro and Wilk test to the combined standardized transformed samples to fit into the N(0,1) distribution, ii) estimate the best transformation to normality by observing the maximum p-value from the Shapiro and Wilk test for all possible values of $\lambda \in \{-1: 0.1: 1\}$ and iii) apply student's t-test to the best normal transformed samples to compare location parameters (means). The performance of the new test over Student's *t*-test, Wilcoxon test and an existing transformed t-test achieved via likelihood method has been justified by two examples and simulations where data comes from skewed distributions (gamma distribution). It is evident that the new test is appropriate for estimating the level of significance and is more powerful than other three tests considered for skewed distributions. It is also clear that higher the skewness, the better are the transformed t-tests in terms of the testing power, with the new transformed t(n) test performing the best. It makes sense because if the data is less skewed or almost no skewed at all, the power transformation will not be needed or appropriate. It follows that the power of all tests is sensitive to the mean difference and sample size; the power of all tests increases with the increase in the mean difference of two population means and the size of the samples. Because of the simplicity of the applications of the new test, researchers can practice the proposed test as an alternative to nonparametric Wilcoxon test for its better power under alternative hypothesis and a reasonable estimate of level of significance under the null distribution. Overall, the Wilcoxon test is better in power than the Student's *t*-test and transformed *t*-tests are better than the Wilcoxon test with the new proposed test t(n) demonstrating the highest power. If researchers are too concern about the estimated level of significance, they might consider Wilcoxon test because of its robustness. However, if power is of the concern, the new test performs the best.

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