# POWER & PERMUTATION

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#### **RECAP**

- \* t-tests : can tell you whether the mean of a sample is different from some value (like zero) or from another sample
  - \* requires the sample to be gaussiandistributed
  - \* but that's ~fine because of the central limit theorem

#### RECOMMENDED READING

- \* Inferential Thinking Chapter 14
- \* Prob 140 Textbook Chapter 6.1

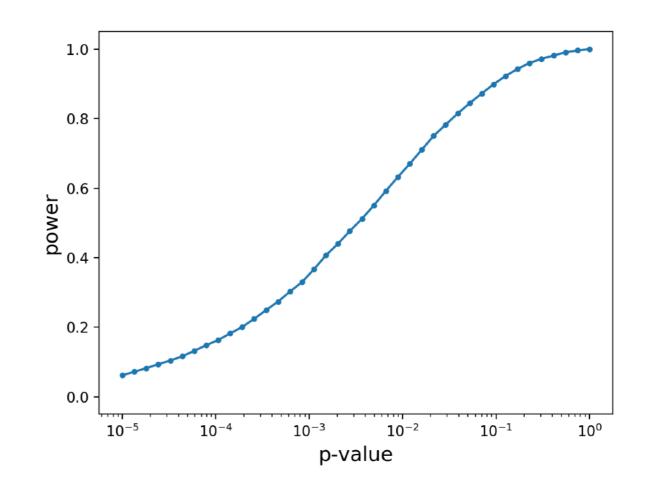
- \* power is the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis if the alternative hypothesis is actually true
  - \* i.e. how often you say "this is significant!" for a real effect

**Effect is Effect is Not** Real Real True False Test Positive Positive **Significant** (TP) (FP) False True **Test Not** Negative Negative **Significant** (FN) (TN)

Power = TP / (TP + FN)

\* 80% power means that 20% of the time you get a false negative: the test says "not significant" when the effect is real

- \* power depends upon the p-value threshold that you choose for a test
  - \* smaller
    threshold =
    lower power
  - \* (but also fewer false positives!)



- \* it's also related to the effect size
  - \* bigger effects are easier to detect, so bigger effect size = higher power
- \* and to the sample size (n)
  - \* bigger samples make it easier to detect effects, so have higher power

\* finally, power is also related to whether the assumptions of the test are valid

\* e.g. if you have paired samples but use an un-paired t-test, then that could reduce your power to find a real effect

- \* many (if not most) data analysis
  questions boil down to this:
  - \* is something about sample A different than sample B?
- \* permutation testing turns this question into a counterfactual

- \* suppose sample A and sample B are not different
  - \* then it shouldn't matter if we scramble up (permute) samples A and B and then re-divide them into new samples

- \* let's say sample A & B are each 10 data
  points
- \* imagine we throw all 20 data points from samples A & B into a bag
- \* then we pull out 10 random data points to form a new "sample A\*1"
- \* and use the other 10 to form a new "sample B\*1"

- \* let's compute the difference between the means of sample A\*1 and sample B\*1, and call this M1
- \* now let's suppose we do this 1000 times, each time randomizing which data goes into A\*i and B\*i, and computing Mi

- \* this gives us a distribution of permuted mean differences [M1, M2, M3, ...]
- \* if there really was no difference between sample A and sample B, then the *true* mean difference, M=mean(A-B), should be somewhere in the middle of the distribution of permuted mean differences

- \* recall the definition of the p-value:
  - \* "if the null hypothesis (there is no difference between A and B) were true, what's the probability of finding a value at least this extreme?"

- \* the permuted mean differences tell us exactly what the null distribution looks like
- \* so we can ask directly: how often does randomly dividing the data into A\* and B\* yield a mean difference as extreme as the one we see?

- \* NB: what I've described here is not a "true" permutation test, because we typically don't test every possible permutation
- \* instead, we test only a small number (like 1000)
- \* technically this is known as "Monte Carlo permutation test" because it involves randomization

- \* permutation tests can work with many different statistics, not just the mean
  - \* for example, you could use permutation to test whether the variances of two samples are the same

- \* permutation tests don't care what distribution your data comes from
- \* so they work even when t-tests don't!

### END