

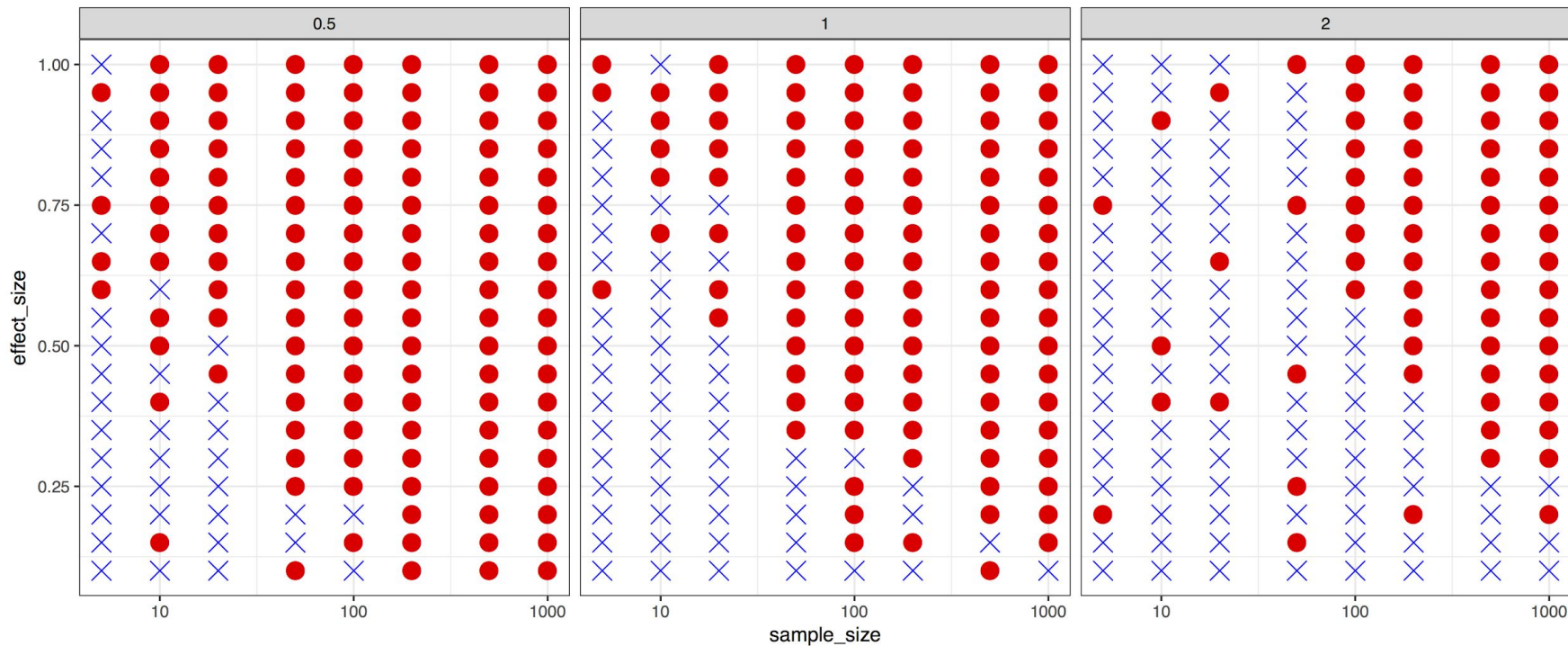
# Day 04

## Statistical power

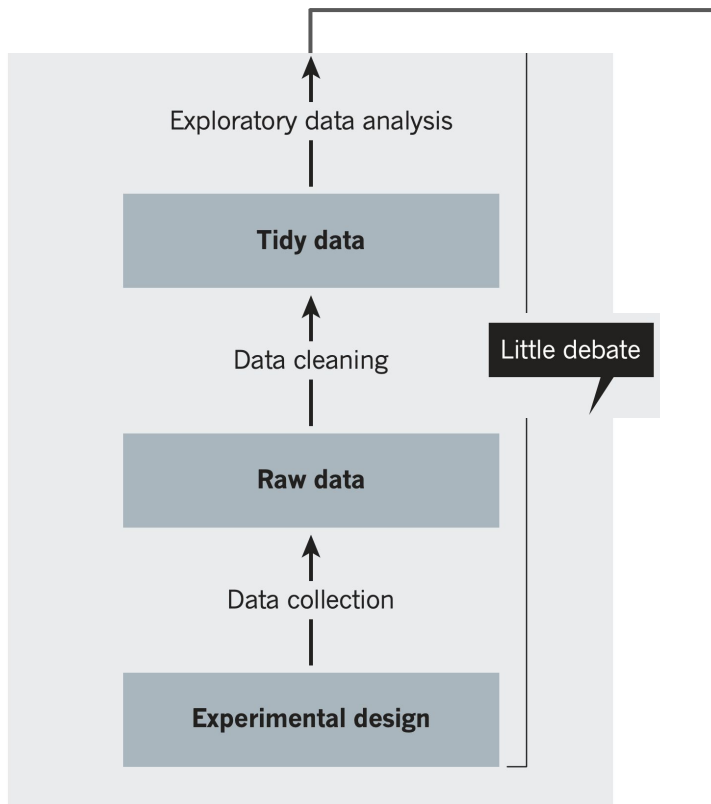
- Statistical power
- Dependence on sample size, effect size, and significance threshold

# P-value

- P-values are dependent on: sample\_size, effect\_size, within-group variance

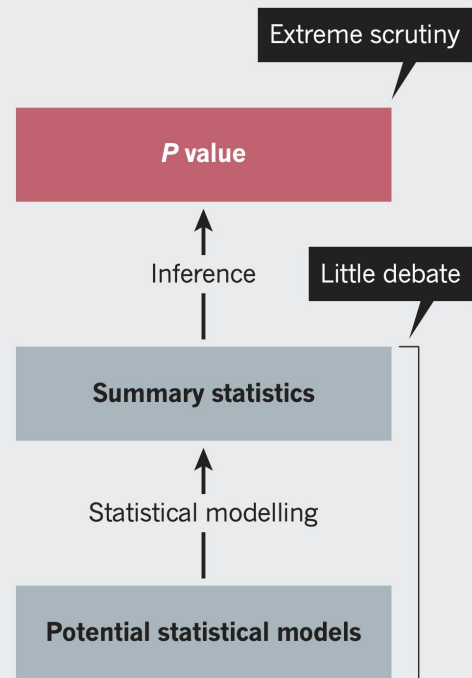


# P-values are just the tip of the iceberg!



## DATA PIPELINE

The design and analysis of a successful study has many stages, all of which need policing.



# Statistical power of a study

The statistical power of a study is the probability that it can distinguish an effect of a given size from random chance.

Power = True positive rate = Sensitivity = Recall

Many studies are underpowered → Waste of resources & Unethical

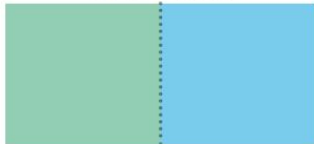
# Statistical power of a study

Probability that the study can distinguish an effect of a given size from random chance.

Power = True positive rate = Sensitivity = Recall

## Experiment groups

50% effect



10% effect



■ Null  
■ Effect present

## Classification and proportion of inferences

Power = 0.2



Power = 0.5



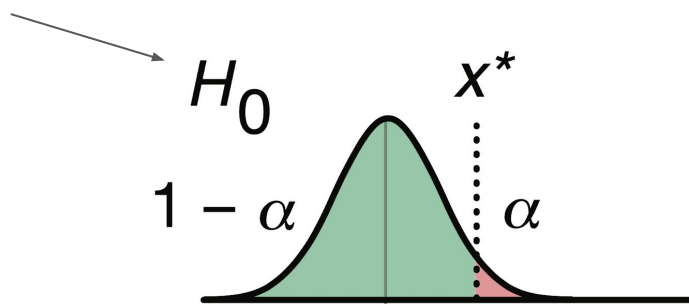
Power = 0.8



■ True negative    ■ False positive  
■ True positive    ■ False negative

# Statistical power

*Null hypothesis*



Correct inference

■ Specificity,  $1 - \alpha$

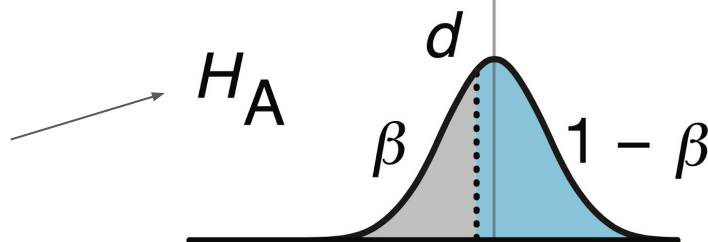
■ Power, sensitivity,  $1 - \beta$

Incorrect inference

■ Type I error,  $\alpha$

■ Type II error,  $\beta$

*Alternative hypothesis*



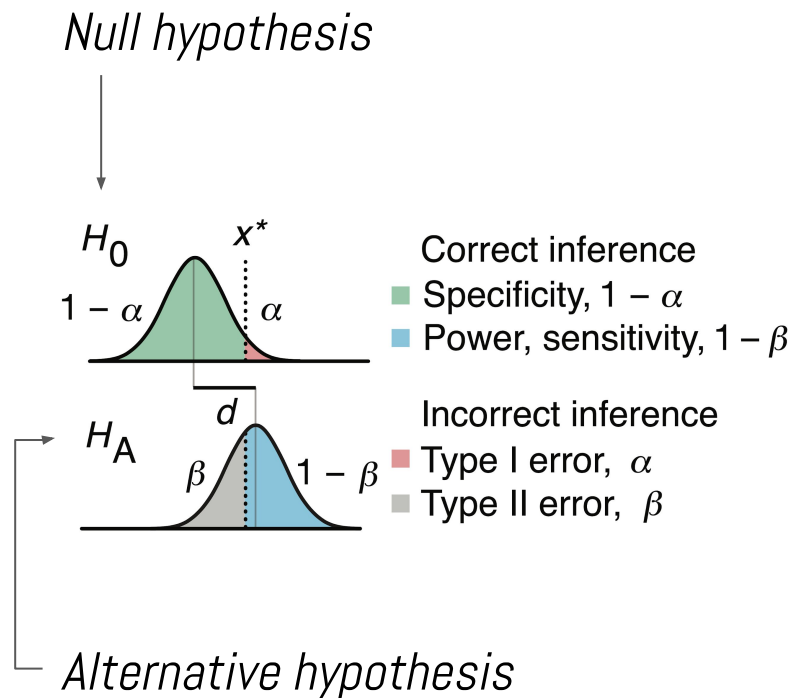
# Statistical power

The power is the probability that the test correctly rejects the null hypothesis ( $H_0$ ) when a specific alternative hypothesis ( $H_1$ ) is true.

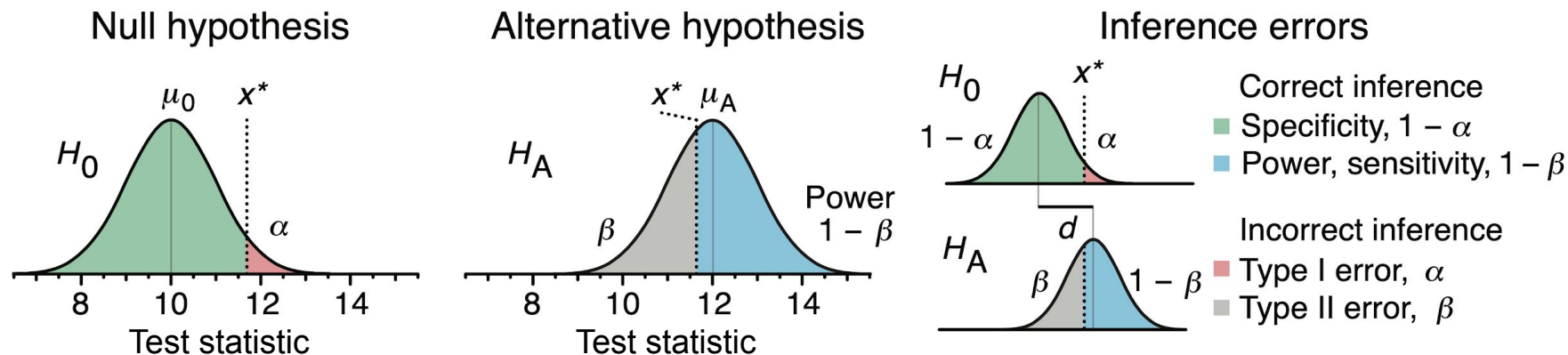
- $\Pr(\text{reject } H_0 \mid H_1 \text{ is true})$
- $H_1$  has to be specific (cannot just be negation of  $H_0$ )
- The probability that it will yield a statistically significant outcome.

$$\text{Power} = 1 - \beta$$

As power increases  $\rightarrow$  Probability of making type II error ( $\beta$ ) decreases.



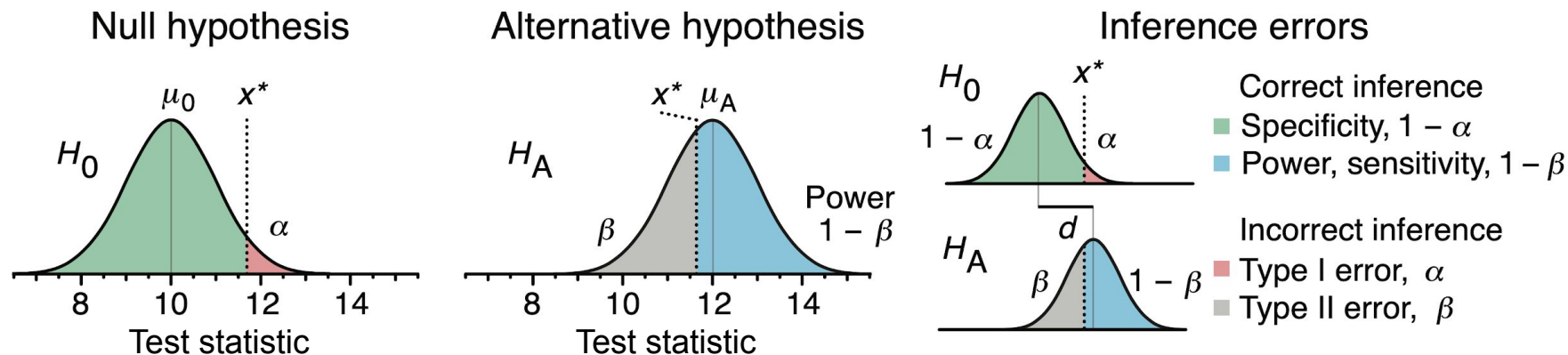
# Statistical power



- Values sampled from  $H_A < x^*$  do not trigger rejection of  $H_0$  and occur at a rate  $\beta$ .
- Power (sensitivity; TPR) =  $1 - \beta$  (blue area).
- Good to have low  $\alpha$  (FPR) & low  $\beta$  (FNR), but:
  - The  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  rates are inversely related:  $\downarrow \alpha \rightarrow \uparrow \beta$  (& reduces power).

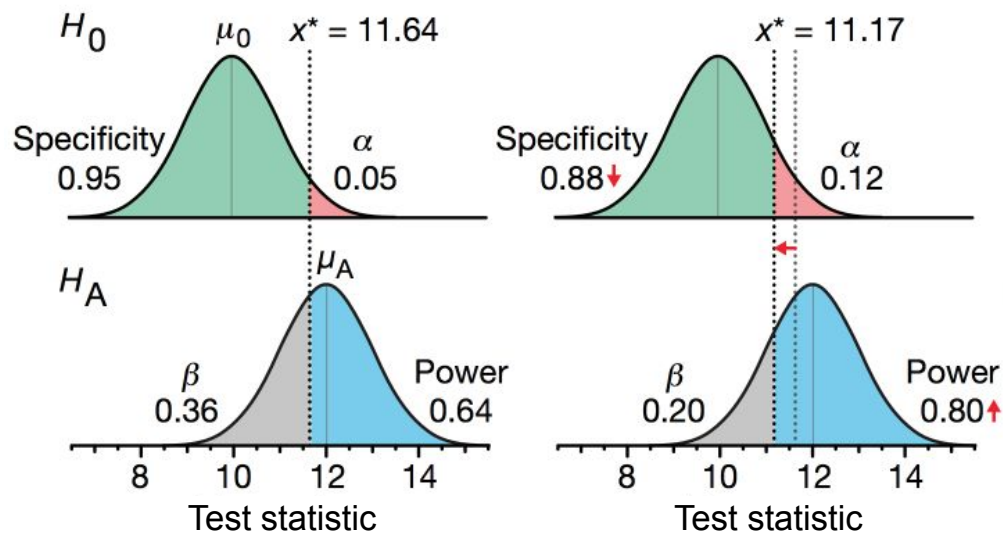


# Statistical power

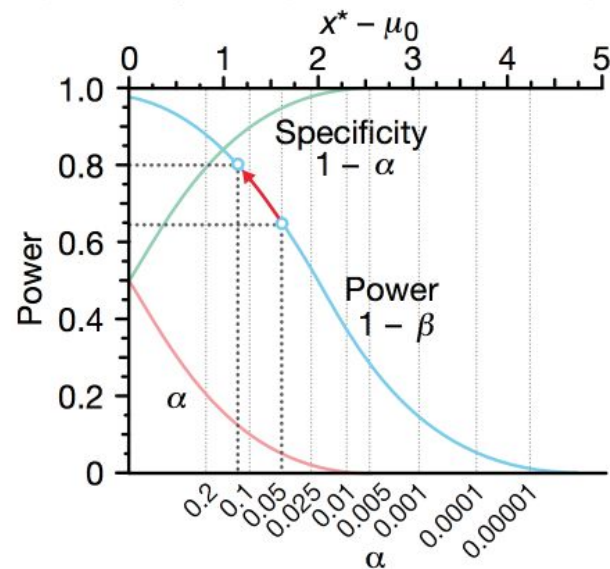


- Typically,  $\alpha < \beta$ : consequences of FP (in an extreme case, a retracted paper) are more serious than those of FN (a missed opportunity to publish).
- But, the balance between  $\alpha$  and  $\beta$  depends on the objectives:
  - If FP are subject to another round of testing but FN are discarded,  $\beta$  should be kept low.

# Compromise between specificity and power

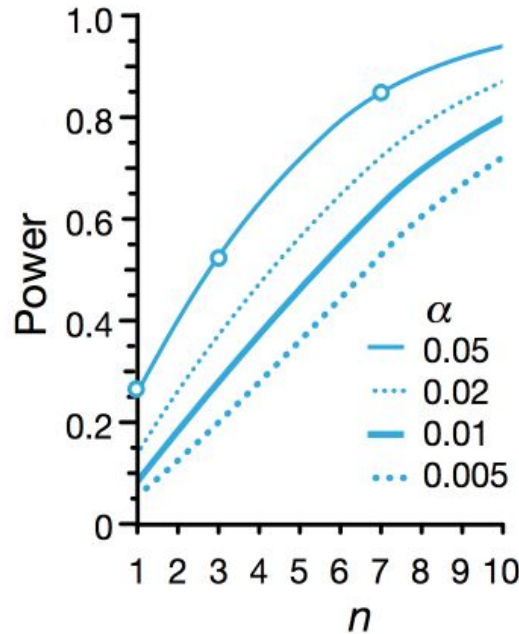
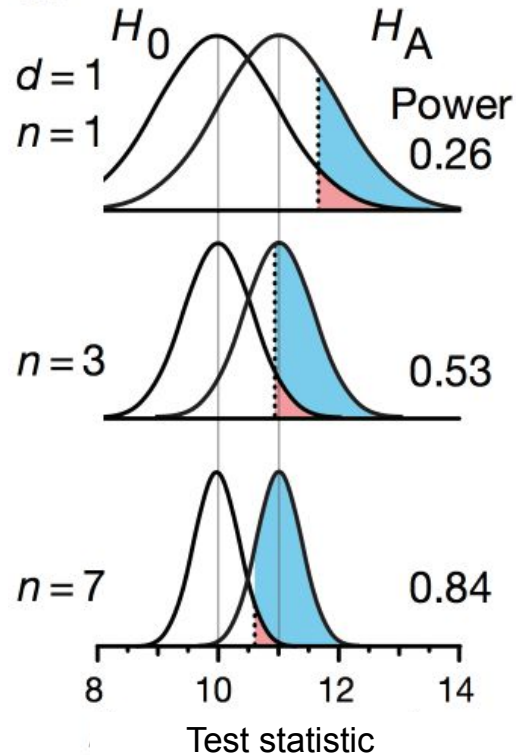


Specificity and power relationship



- Decreasing specificity (TNR) increases power (TPR)
- Can we improve our chance to detect increased effect from  $H_A$  (increase power) without compromising  $\alpha$  (increasing FP)?

# Impact of sample size on power



One can control experimental conditions (e.g. using genetically identical orgs under lab conditions; adding precise amount of a drug) to reduce the variation b/w samples & compensate to some extent for small sample sizes.

In practice, because we estimate population  $\sigma$  from the samples, power is decreased and we need a slightly larger sample size to achieve the desired power.

# Statistical power depends on a number of factors

Power depends on:

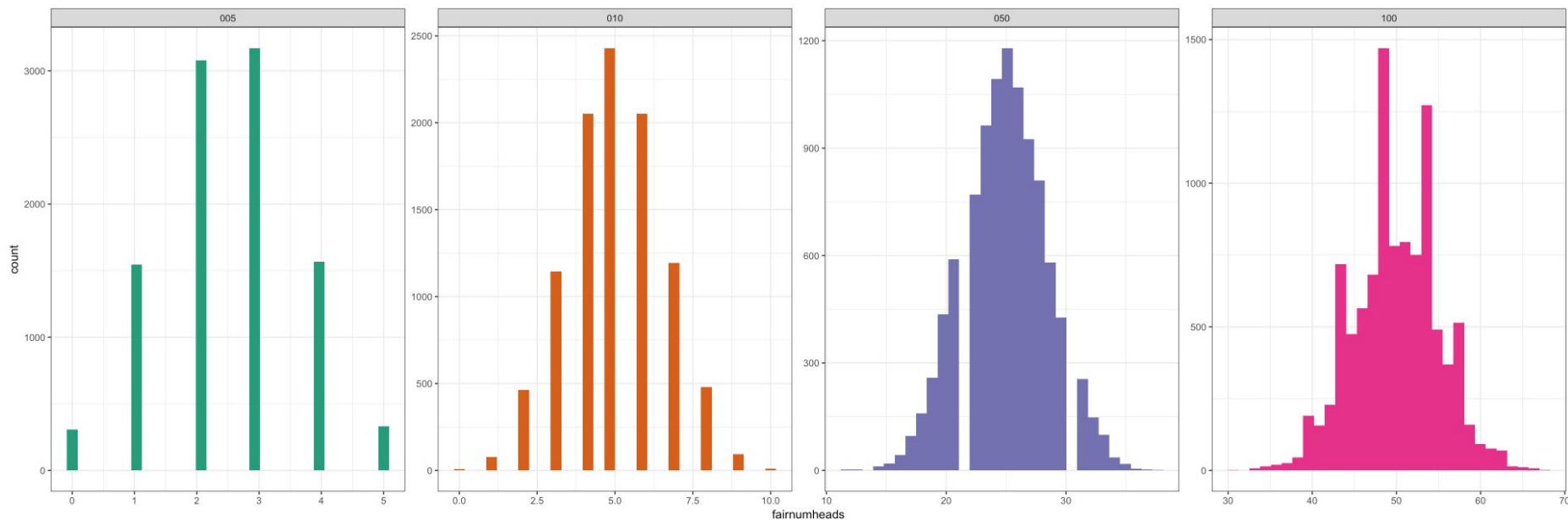
- Statistical significance criterion:
  - Lesser conservative test (larger significance criterion) → More power
- Sample size:
  - Collecting more data → Easier to detect small effects; relates to the efficiency of a given testing procedure, experimental design, or an estimator (sample size required for a given power)
- Size of the effect:
  - Larger the effect → Easier it is to detect; (std. effect size better)
- Measurement error: counting cells vs. estimating level of fatigue/depression
- Experimental design: e.g. in a two-sample setting, optimal to have equal number

# Generating a power curve

Let's examine some code to generate a power curve to detect unfair coins:

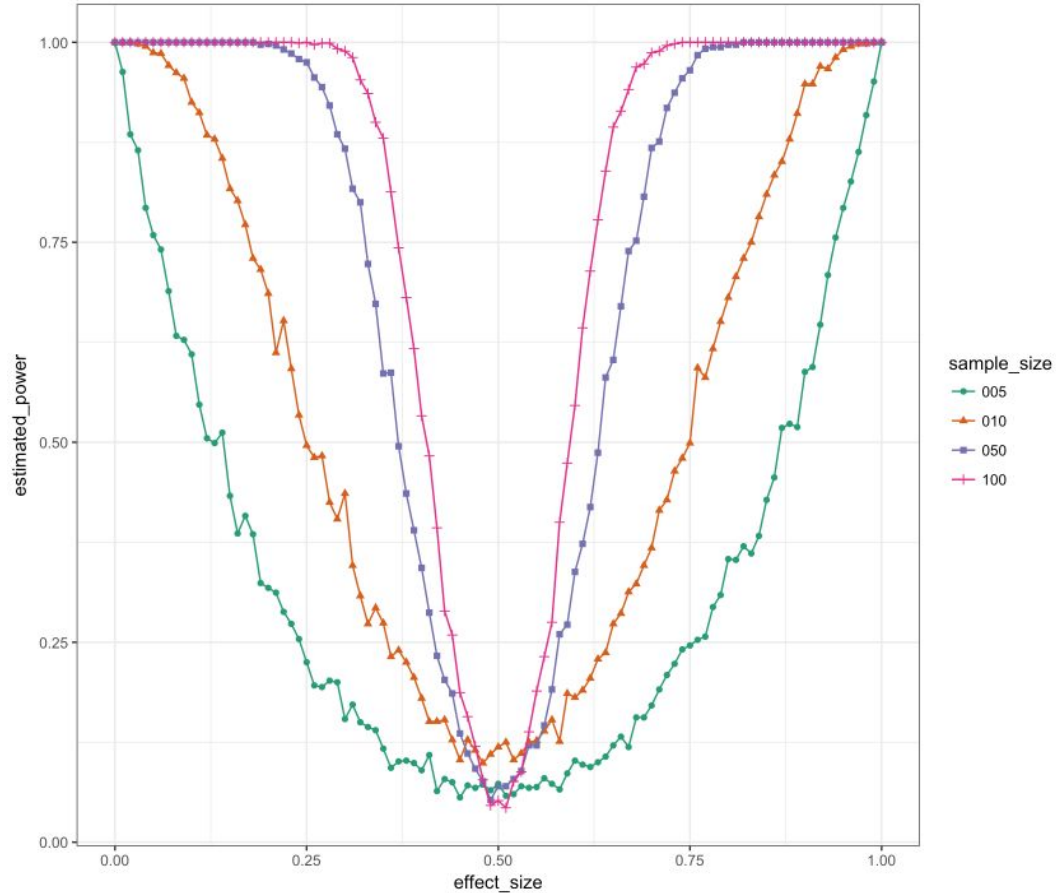
- You are given a coin and asked to detect if it is biased.
- Experiment: Flip the coin **num\_flips** and take a call.
- Establish the null hypothesis (**num\_permutations** = 10,000) for a given **num\_flips** (this is the **sample size**).
- For a given **bias** (i.e. the **effect size**), find out how many times does an experiment like the one above can reject the null hypothesis.

# Generating a power curve



Null distributions for different sample sizes

# Generating a power curve



# Power analysis

Balancing sample size, effect size, and power is critical to good study design.

- First, set the values of type I error ( $\alpha$ ) and power ( $1 - \beta$ ) to be statistically adequate:
  - Traditionally 0.05 and 0.80, respectively.
- Then determine sample size ( $n$ ) on the basis of the smallest effect we wish to measure.
  - If the required sample size is too large  $\rightarrow$  may need to reassess objectives or more tightly control the experimental conditions to reduce the variance.
- When the power is low, only large effects can be detected, and negative results cannot be reliably interpreted.



# Underpowered studies

- Undermines the purpose of scientific research because it reduces the chance of detecting a true effect.
  - By definition, lower power means that the chance of discovering effects that are genuinely true is low.
  - Low-powered studies produce more FN than high-powered studies.
  - When studies in a given field are designed with a power of 20%, it means that if there are 100 genuine non-null (i.e. real) effects to be discovered in that field, these studies are expected to discover only 20 of them.

# Underpowered studies

- Reduces the likelihood that a statistically significant result reflects a true effect.
  - I.e. low positive predictive value (PPV) when an effect is claimed.

PPV (Precision) =  $\frac{(1-\beta) \cdot P/N}{(1-\beta) \cdot P/N + \alpha}$

Odds

TPR (Power)

FPR | Type I error

Odds = 0.25 &  $\alpha = 0.05$

Case I: Power = 0.2	Case II: Power = 0.8
$\frac{0.2 \times 0.25}{0.2 \times 0.25 + 0.05}$	$\frac{0.8 \times 0.25}{0.8 \times 0.25 + 0.05}$
$\frac{0.05}{0.10} = 0.5$	$\frac{0.2}{0.25} = 0.8$

# Underpowered studies

- Can lead to an exaggerated estimate of the magnitude of the effect when a true effect is discovered.
  - **Winner's curse** (likely to occur whenever claims of discovery are based on thresholds of statistical significance (for example,  $p < 0.05$ ) or other selection filters).
  - Effect inflation is worst for small, low-powered studies, which can only detect effects that happen to be large.
  - E.g. if the true effect is medium-sized, only those small studies that, by chance, overestimate the magnitude of the effect will pass the threshold for discovery.

# Underpowered studies

- Can lead to an exaggerated estimate of the magnitude of the effect when a true effect is discovered.

Scenario:

- An association truly exists with an effect size of  $\sim 1.20$ .
- We're trying to discover it by performing a small study with power of, say,  $\sim 20\%$ .

The results of any study are subject to sampling variation and random error in the measurements of the variables and outcomes of interest.

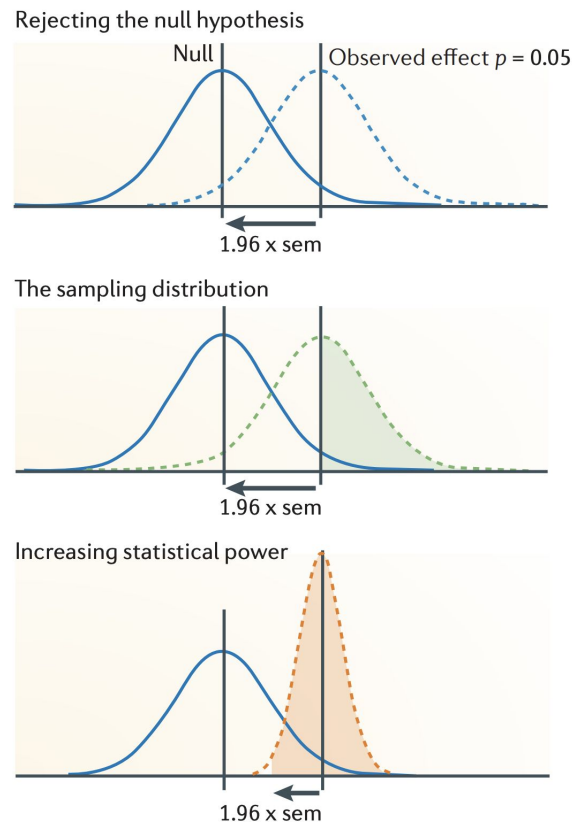
- The study may find an effect  $< 1.20$  (e.g., **1.00**) or  $> 1.20$  (e.g., **1.60**).
- Effect of 1.00 or 1.20 will not reach stat. significance because of the small sample size.
- Nominally significant association only when random error creates an effect of 1.60.

**Winner's curse:** The 'lucky' scientist who makes the discovery in a small study is cursed by finding an inflated effect.

# Underpowered studies

- Hamper replicating research findings.
  - If the original estimate of the effect is inflated, then replication studies will tend to show smaller effect sizes as findings *converge* on the true effect.
  - More replication studies → eventually arrive at the more accurate effect size, but this may take time or may never happen if we only perform small studies.

Common misconception: A replication study will have sufficient power to replicate an initial finding if the sample size is similar to that in the original study.



# Underpowered studies

- Has ethical dimensions:
  - Unreliable research is inefficient and wasteful.
    - Even a study that achieves only 80% power still presents a 20% possibility that the animals have been sacrificed without the study detecting the underlying true effect.
    - If the average power of studies is 20–30%, the ethical implications are substantial.
  - Continue data collection once it is clear that the effect being sought does not exist or is too small to be of interest.
    - Studies are not just wasteful when they stop too early, they are also wasteful when they stop too late.

# Recommendations

- Perform an a priori power calculation
  - Use existing literature to estimate the size of effect and design your study accordingly.
  - If time or financial constraints mean your study is underpowered, make this clear and acknowledge this limitation (or limitations) in the interpretation of your results.
- Disclose methods and findings transparently
  - If the intended analyses produce null findings and you move on to explore your data in other ways, say so.
  - Null findings locked in file drawers bias the literature, whereas exploratory analyses are only useful and valid if you acknowledge the caveats and limitations.

# Recommendations

- Pre-register your study protocol and analysis plan
  - Pre-registration clarifies whether analyses are confirmatory or exploratory, encourages well-powered studies and reduces opportunities for non-transparent data mining and selective reporting.
- Work collaboratively to increase power and replicate findings
  - Combining data increases the total sample size (and therefore power) while minimizing the labour and resource impact on any one contributor. Large-scale collaborative consortia in fields such as human genetic epidemiology have transformed the reliability of findings in these fields.



# Typical sample sizes

- Clinical research (behavioral or drug treatments):
  - Need enough participants to represent all subtypes for which treatment might be used.
  - Some issues: lack reliable methods for diagnosis.
  - Rough rule of thumb: at least 100 people.
    - The actual number needed to find a valid effect depends on a range of factors, including the magnitude and frequency of the effect in the general population.

# Typical sample sizes

- Brain imaging studies:
  - Historically included 20 or fewer participants. In the past 10 years, closer to 100 participants.
  - Studies that aim to trace developmental trajectories should also track the same few individuals over time, scanning their brains at regular intervals, rather than examining a cross-section of people of different ages at different sites.

# Typical sample sizes

- Genetic studies (large no. of variants/genes, each making a small contribution):
  - Rare variants in coding regions: order of thousands of people.
  - Risk variants across the whole-genome: tens of thousands of individuals.
    - Millions of statistical tests, one per variant → increases FPR.
  - GWAS: hundreds of thousands of individuals
    - Common gene variants that contribute to the risk of a condition.

# Typical sample sizes

- Preclinical research:
  - Underpowered animal studies for decades (cost and ethical issues).
  - Make up for their low numbers by analyzing a large number of cells or other samples from each animal → 'pseudoreplication.'
  - Can control lab animals' diets, ages and housing conditions, and scale doses or treatments by weight → sample sizes on the order of 10 animals to be acceptable. Should  $\geq 15$  per group to identify important biological effects.
  - In the past few years, push for larger numbers in animal studies.

# Typical sample sizes

- Biomarker studies (physiological characteristics, such as patterns of eye movements, brain waves or activity, or blood chemistry):
  - Candidate biomarkers have often failed in subsequent studies.
  - Must draw samples from at least 100 individuals.
  - Clinical trials of biomarkers designed to flag people with disease →  $\geq 1,000$  participants. Researchers should also replicate the efficacy of a biomarker in an independent sample.
  - Some scientists are designing biomarker studies of thousands of participants that combine data from behavioral, imaging and genetic studies.

# Typical sample sizes

- Field trials:
  - Variables that are hard to control, and so must include hundreds of individuals to yield meaningful results.
  - Needs more than an appropriate number of participants.
    - Representative mix of sexes and ages.