



# Power

## Statistical Inference

Brian Caffo, Jeff Leek, Roger Peng  
Johns Hopkins Bloomberg School of Public Health

# Power

- Power is the probability of rejecting the null hypothesis when it is false
- Ergo, power (as it's name would suggest) is a good thing; you want more power
- A type II error (a bad thing, as its name would suggest) is failing to reject the null hypothesis when it's false; the probability of a type II error is usually called  $\beta$
- Note  $\text{Power} = 1 - \beta$

# Notes

- Consider our previous example involving RDI
- $H_0 : \mu = 30$  versus  $H_a : \mu > 30$
- Then power is

$$P\left(\frac{\bar{X} - 30}{s/\sqrt{n}} > t_{1-\alpha, n-1} \mid \mu = \mu_a\right)$$

also H1 ist true

- Note that this is a function that depends on the specific value of  $\mu_a$ !
- Notice as  $\mu_a$  approaches 30 the power approaches  $\alpha$

# Calculating power for Gaussian data

Assume that  $n$  is large and that we know  $\sigma$  Das ist keine Z-Statistik, weil wir 30 abziehen, und 30 ist der Mittelwert unter H0, nicht unter H1 (wo ja  $\mu_a$  gilt)

$$1 - \beta = P\left(\frac{\bar{X} - 30}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} > z_{1-\alpha} \mid \mu = \mu_a\right)$$

hier mit norm.Vertl statt T-Test >> z, sigma

$$= P\left(\frac{\bar{X} - \mu_a + \mu_a - 30}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} > z_{1-\alpha} \mid \mu = \mu_a\right)$$

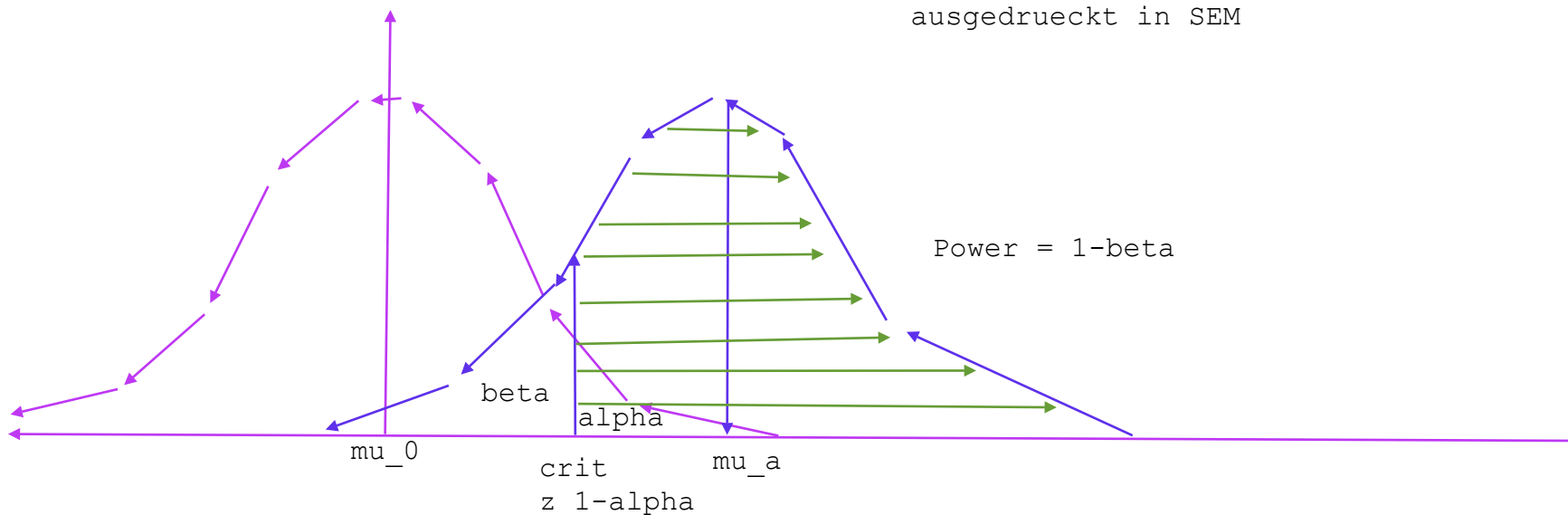
Trick:  $\mu_a$  abziehen und dazuzählen.

$$= P\left(\frac{\bar{X} - \mu_a}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} > z_{1-\alpha} - \frac{\mu_a - 30}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \mid \mu = \mu_a\right)$$

Jetzt ist es eine Z-Statistik, weil wir  $\mu_a$  abziehen, unter H1.

$$= P\left(Z > z_{1-\alpha} - \frac{\mu_a - 30}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \mid \mu = \mu_a\right)$$

Das ist Differenz zw  $\mu_a$  und  $\mu_0$  ausgedrueckt in SEM



# Example continued

- Suppose that we wanted to detect an increase in mean RDI of at least 2 events / hour (above 30).
- Assume normality and that the sample in question will have a standard deviation of 4;
- What would be the power if we took a sample size of 16?

$$- Z_{1-\alpha} = 1.645$$

$$- \frac{\mu_a - 30}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} = 2 / (4/\sqrt{16}) = 2$$

$$- P(Z > 1.645 - 2) = P(Z > -0.355) = 64\%$$

$$\frac{(X_{\bar{}} - \mu_0)}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \sim N(0,1) \text{ unter } H_0.$$

Unter H1 ändert sich  $\mu$  und  $\sigma$ :

$$\sim N\left(\frac{\mu_a - \mu_0}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}}, 1\right)$$

```
pnorm(-0.355, lower.tail = FALSE)
```

Daher geht auch:

```
pnorm(1.645, mu=2, sd=1)
```

```
[1] 0.6387
```

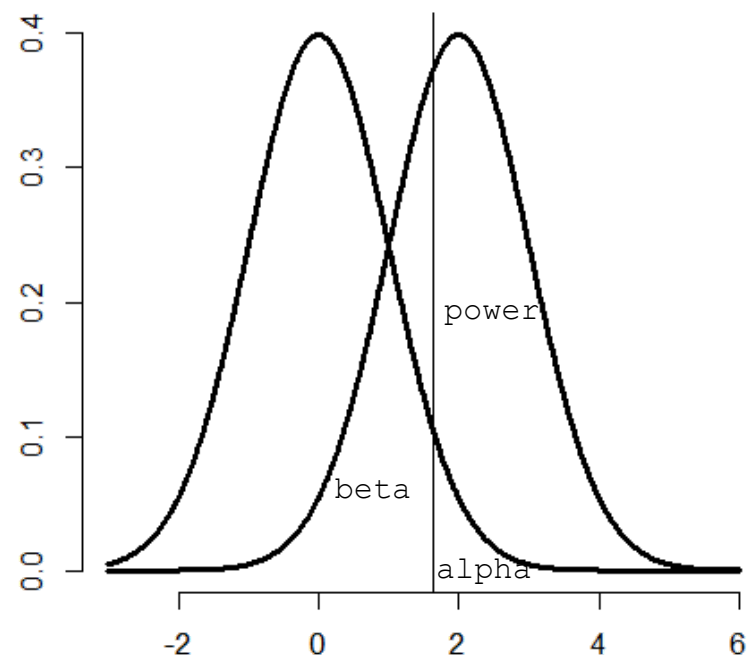
Unter  $H_0$ :  $(X_{\bar{}} - \mu_0) / (\sigma/\sqrt{n}) \sim N(0,1)$

Unter  $H_1$ ? immer noch  $\sim N$ , mit  $\mu = \mu_a - \mu_0$  und var 1.

# Note

- Consider  $H_0 : \mu = \mu_0$  and  $H_a : \mu > \mu_0$  with  $\mu = \mu_a$  under  $H_a$ .
- Under  $H_0$  the statistic  $Z = \frac{\sqrt{n}(\bar{X} - \mu_0)}{\sigma}$  is  $N(0, 1)$
- Under  $H_a$   $Z$  is  $N\left(\frac{\sqrt{n}(\mu_a - \mu_0)}{\sigma}, 1\right)$
- We reject if  $Z > Z_{1-\alpha}$

```
sigma <- 10; mu_0 = 0; mu_a = 2; n <- 100; alpha = .05
plot(c(-3, 6), c(0, dnorm(0)), type = "n", frame = false, xlab = "Z value", ylab = "")
xvals <- seq(-3, 6, length = 1000)
lines(xvals, dnorm(xvals), type = "l", lwd = 3)
lines(xvals, dnorm(xvals, mean = sqrt(n) * (mu_a - mu_0) / sigma), lwd = 3)
abline(v = qnorm(1 - alpha))
```



# Question

- When testing  $H_a : \mu > \mu_0$ , notice if power is  $1 - \beta$ , then

$$1 - \beta = P\left(Z > z_{1-\alpha} - \frac{\mu_a - \mu_0}{\sigma/\sqrt{n}} \mid \mu = \mu_a\right) = P(Z > z_\beta)$$

- This yields the equation

$$z_{1-\alpha} - \frac{\sqrt{n}(\mu_a - \mu_0)}{\sigma} = z_\beta$$

- Unknowns:  $\mu_a, \sigma, n, \beta$
- Knowns:  $\mu_0, \alpha$
- Specify any 3 of the unknowns and you can solve for the remainder



# Notes

- The calculation for  $H_a : \mu < \mu_0$  is similar
- For  $H_a : \mu \neq \mu_0$  calculate the one sided power using  $\alpha/2$  (this is only approximately right, it excludes the probability of getting a large TS in the opposite direction of the truth)
- Power goes up as  $\alpha$  gets larger
- Power of a one sided test is greater than the power of the associated two sided test
- Power goes up as  $\mu_1$  gets further away from  $\mu_0$
- Power goes up as  $n$  goes up
- Power doesn't need  $\mu_a$ ,  $\sigma$  and  $n$ , instead only  $\frac{\sqrt{n}(\mu_a - \mu_0)}{\sigma}$ 
  - The quantity  $\frac{\mu_a - \mu_0}{\sigma}$  is called the effect size, the difference in the means in standard deviation units.
  - Being unit free, it has some hope of interpretability across settings

# T-test power

- Consider calculating power for a Gossett's  $T$  test for our example
- The power is

$$P\left(\frac{\bar{X} - \mu_0}{S/\sqrt{n}} > t_{1-\alpha, n-1} \mid \mu = \mu_a\right)$$

- Calculating this requires the non-central t distribution.
- `power.t.test` does this very well
  - Omit one of the arguments and it solves for it

# Example

```
power.t.test(n = 16, delta = 2 / 4, sd=1, type = "one.sample", alt = "one.sided")$power
```

delta: difference in the means      instead of 2-group t-test

```
[1] 0.604
```

```
power.t.test(n = 16, delta = 2, sd=4, type = "one.sample", alt = "one.sided")$power
```

```
[1] 0.604
```

```
power.t.test(n = 16, delta = 100, sd=200, type = "one.sample", alt = "one.sided")$power
```

```
[1] 0.604
```

>> Resultat immer gleich, da Power abhaengt von  $(\mu_0 - \mu_1) / \sigma = \text{delta} / \text{sd}$  [hier = sd]

# Example

Man kann der Fkt `power.t.test` immer drei Variablen geben, und sie spuckt die vierte aus:

```
power.t.test(power = .8, delta = 2 / 4, sd=1, type = "one.sample", alt = "one.sided")$n
```

```
[1] 26.14
```

```
power.t.test(power = .8, delta = 2, sd=4, type = "one.sample", alt = "one.sided")$n
```

```
[1] 26.14
```

```
power.t.test(power = .8, delta = 100, sd=200, type = "one.sample", alt = "one.sided")$n
```

```
[1] 26.14
```

Achtung: viele 'dials' -> viele Möglichkeiten, sich zu irren (oder selbst zu belügen).  
Daher die Powerberechnung so simple wie möglich machen!