One-sample model and sample size

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1 Continuous data: One-sample t-test

One-sample t-tests look at just one parameter of interest μ (in addition to σ) as data-generation mechanism. (see shinyApp).

1.1 Statistical model

- $Y_i = \mu + \epsilon_i$; $\epsilon_i \stackrel{i.i.d.}{\sim} N(0, \sigma^2)$ (or with ϵ_i i.i.d. and "large" sample size), i = 1, ..., n
- $Y_i \overset{i.i.d.}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$ (equivalent)

This is the simplest example of $Y_i = \beta_1 + \beta_2 x_{i2} + \cdots + \beta_p x_{ip} + \epsilon_i$, the **only intercept model** with $\beta_1 = \mu$ (see IntroLinearModels).

1.2 Intro in sample size calculation

Let us first ask the **how many do I need**-question. There are two kinds of *sample size calculations*, the power approach and the precision approach.

Consider the problem $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$ versus $H_1: \mu \neq \mu_0$.

1.2.1 Power approach

A priori sample size calculation, see pages 77-78 AMT. Let β be the Type II error (The probability of **not** rejectig H_0 if a specified alternative H_1 is true. $1 - \beta$ is the probability of the complement, of rejectig H_0 if a specified alternative H_1 is true).

Question: What n we need to assure

- to reject $H_0: \mu = \mu_0$
- with probability 1β
- with false-positive rate α
- if the specified alternative $H_1: \mu = \mu_1$ is true?

Assume $\mu_0 = 0$, thus $\delta = \mu_1 - \mu_0 = \mu_1$. One can show hat

$$n \ge \frac{(z_{1-\alpha/2} + z_{1-\beta})^2}{(\delta/\sigma)^2}$$

The approximation $n \approx 8/(\delta/\sigma)^2$ holds for $\alpha = 0.05$ and $\beta = 0.2$.

Assume we estimate or "guess" σ from another study with $\hat{\sigma} = 22$ and we want that H_0 is rejected with probability 0.8 if $\mu_1 = 13$ is true.

```
(qnorm(.975)+qnorm(.8))^2/((mu1-mu0)/sigmahat)^2
```

```
[1] 22.478
```

In R, you can use the *exact* version, power.t.test(). Read the help file help(power.t.test). You have to specify δ , σ , power and the type of test:

```
power.t.test(delta=mu1-mu0,sd=sigmahat,power=0.8,type="one.sample")
```

One-sample t test power calculation

```
n = 24.469
delta = 13
    sd = 22
sig.level = 0.05
    power = 0.8
alternative = two.sided
```

1.2.2 Precision approach

In this approach, we do not need a Type II error. We have **not** to specify the alternative, which **most** often **makes more sense**, since there are **many** (even infinite) options for the alternative $\mu \neq \mu_0$. We estimate the sample size by specifying the precision we want for the estimation, that is, we specify a priori the maximal width of the $100 \times (1 - \alpha)\%$ CI.

An approximative $100 \times (1-\alpha)\%$ CI is given by $\bar{x} \pm \delta$, with $\delta = z_{1-\alpha/2} \frac{\sigma}{\sqrt{n}}$. Solving for n gives

$$n \ge \frac{z_{1-\alpha/2}^2}{(\delta/\sigma)^2}$$

Using again $\hat{\sigma} = 22$:

```
delta<-c(2,3,4,5,8)
alpha<-0.05
data.frame(delta=delta,n=qnorm(1-alpha/2)^2*(sigmahat/delta)^2)</pre>
```

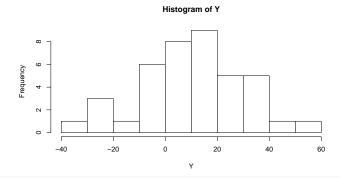
```
delta n
1 2 464.817
2 3 206.585
3 4 116.204
4 5 74.371
5 8 29.051
```

1.3 Simulation of example data

Let us simulate some data from population with assumed known parameters μ and σ^2 . We simulate to understand the emergence of data. Of course, in reality, we do not know the data-generating process.

```
set.seed(55)
mu<-10
sigma<-20
n<-40
Y<-rnorm(n,mu,sigma)</pre>
```

hist(Y)



summary(Y)

```
Min. 1st Qu. Median Mean 3rd Qu. Max. -31.505 -0.214 11.220 11.309 25.104 57.107
```

1.4 Analysis

5.0604 17.5574

1.4.1 As one-sample t-Test

```
t.test(Y)
    One Sample t-test

data: Y
t = 3.66, df = 39, p-value = 0.00074
alternative hypothesis: true mean is not equal to 0
95 percent confidence interval:
```

```
sample estimates:
mean of x
11.309
```

1.4.2 As linear model

This is equivalent with a linear model with only an intercept as parameter.

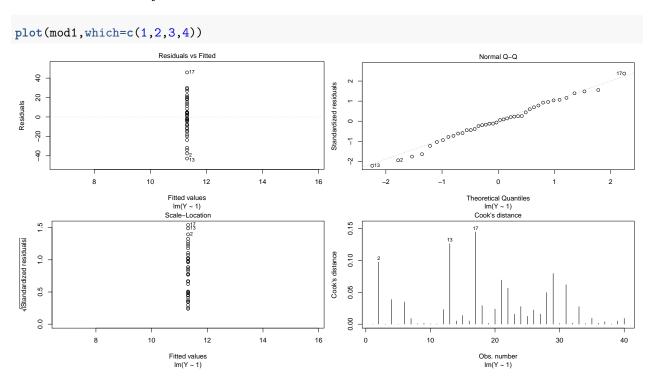
```
mod1 < -lm(Y \sim 1)
summary(mod1)
Call:
lm(formula = Y \sim 1)
Residuals:
   Min
            1Q Median
                           3Q
                                  Max
-42.81 -11.52 -0.09 13.80 45.80
Coefficients:
             Estimate Std. Error t value Pr(>|t|)
                                      3.66 0.00074
(Intercept)
                11.31
                             3.09
Residual standard error: 19.5 on 39 degrees of freedom
Of course, the results are the same. The t-test is a the simplest linear model.
Estimation of \sigma "by hand" (this quantity is given in the output above):
sqrt(sum(mod1$residuals^2)/(n-1))
[1] 19.538
Confidence interval for \mu:
confint(mod1)
              2.5 % 97.5 %
(Intercept) 5.0604 17.557
```

1.4.3 Meaning of Type I error rate

```
nrep<-1000 ##number of simulations
mu<-0 ##true mean
alpha<-0.05 ##Type 1 error rate
n<-40 ##Sample Size
sigma<-20 ## True sigma
decision<-rep(0,nrep) ## Preparation of Decision vector
for (i in 1:nrep)
{
Y2 <- rnorm(n=n,mean=mu,sd=sigma)
decision[i] <- (t.test(Y2,)$p.value)< alpha ### nrep simulations and analysis
}
decision<-factor(decision,labels=c("do not reject HO","reject HO"))
decision <- prop.table(table(decision))</pre>
```

```
decision
do not reject HO reject HO
0.945 0.055
```

1.4.4 Residual analysis



1.4.5 Small samples without normality

In the example above, the assumptions are met since we simulated data from a normal distribution. In the absence of normality, this assumption of the t-test is not met. We can then perform a non-parametric test.

- The wilcox.test is the non-parametric alternative to the t-test.
- With the actual data, results are similar since we have simulated from a normal distribution.

```
wilcox.test(Y,conf.int=TRUE)
```

Wilcoxon signed rank test

2 Equivalence testing

2.1 Philosophical background

Very often, it makes not much sense to test nulls such as $H_0: \mu = 0$ versus $H_1: \mu \neq 0$. Assume a theory predicts a range for μ , i.e. that μ lies in a region $[-\epsilon, +\epsilon]$.

You then have the following test situation:

 $H_0: \mu \leq -\epsilon \text{ OR } \mu \geq +\epsilon \text{ versus } H_1: -\epsilon < \mu < \epsilon, \text{ meaning that }$

- Null: The true parameter is outside a tolerance region, "irrelevance".
- Alternative: The true parameter is inside a tolerance region, "relevance".

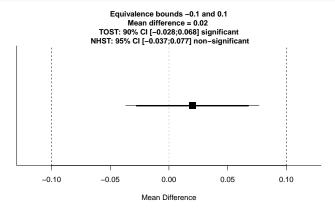
Rejecting H_0 now really means rejecting irrelevance (defined by the margins ϵ).

2.2 Implementation

This analysis can be performed with TOST (Two One-sided t-Tests), this is implemented in the package TOSTER. For the one-sample situation, we have the function TOSTone.raw().

Test observed mean of 0.52 and standard deviation of 0.5 in sample of 300 participants against 0.5 given equivalence bounds in raw units of -0.1 and 0.1, with an alpha = 0.05.

```
library(TOSTER)
TOSTone.raw(m=0.52,mu=0.5,sd=0.5,n=300,low_eqbound=-0.1, high_eqbound=0.1, alpha=0.05)
```



```
TOST results:
t-value lower bound: 4.16 p-value lower bound: 0.00002
t-value upper bound: -2.77 p-value upper bound: 0.003
degrees of freedom: 299

Equivalence bounds (raw scores):
low eqbound: -0.1
high eqbound: 0.1

TOST confidence interval:
lower bound 90% CI: -0.028
upper bound 90% CI: 0.068

NHST confidence interval:
lower bound 95% CI: -0.037
upper bound 95% CI: -0.077
```

```
Equivalence Test Result:
```

The equivalence test was significant, t(299) = -2.771, p = 0.00297, given equivalence bounds of -0.100. Null Hypothesis Test Result:

The null hypothesis test was non-significant, t(299) = 0.693, p = 0.489, given an alpha of 0.05.

Based on the equivalence test and the null-hypothesis test combined, we can conclude that the observed

```
"by hand"
```

```
tlower<-(0.52-0.4)/(0.5/sqrt(300))
tlower
```

```
[1] 4.1569
```

```
tupper<-(0.52-0.6)/(0.5/sqrt(300))
tupper</pre>
```

[1] -2.7713

2.3 Package TOSTER functions

If you need such analysis in the future, look at help(package="TOSTER") for other functions in the package, such as functions for sample size estimation.