# Statistical Inference: Power

# **Packages**

library(tidyverse)

# Errors in testing

#### What can happen:

	Decision	
Truth Null true Null false	<b>Do not reject</b> Correct Type II error	<b>Reject null</b> Type I error Correct

Tension between truth and decision about truth (imperfect).

- ▶ Prob. of type I error denoted  $\alpha$ . Usually fix  $\alpha$ , eg.  $\alpha = 0.05$ .
- ▶ Prob. of type II error denoted  $\beta$ . Determined by the planned experiment. Low  $\beta$  good.
- Prob. of not making type II error called **power** (=  $1 \beta$ ). High power good.

#### Power

- Suppose  $H_0: \theta=10$ ,  $H_a: \theta \neq 10$  for some parameter  $\theta$ .
- ▶ Suppose  $H_0$  wrong. What does that say about  $\theta$ ?
- Not much. Could have  $\theta=11$  or  $\theta=8$  or  $\theta=496$ . In each case,  $H_0$  wrong.
- ▶ How likely a type II error is depends on what  $\theta$  is:
  - If  $\theta=496$ , should be able to reject  $H_0:\theta=10$  even for small sample, so  $\beta$  should be small (power large).
  - If  $\theta=11$ , might have hard time rejecting  $H_0$  even with large sample, so  $\beta$  would be larger (power smaller).
- Power depends on true parameter value, and on sample size.
- So we play "what if": "if  $\theta$  were 11 (or 8 or 496), what would power be?".

#### Figuring out power

- ▶ Time to figure out power is before you collect any data, as part of planning process.
- Need to have idea of what kind of departure from null hypothesis of interest to you, eg. average improvement of 5 points on reading test scores. (Subject-matter decision, not statistical one.)
- Then, either:
  - "I have this big a sample and this big a departure I want to detect. What is my power for detecting it?"
  - "I want to detect this big a departure with this much power. How big a sample size do I need?"

# How to understand/estimate power?

- Suppose we test  $H_0: \mu=10$  against  $H_a: \mu\neq 10$ , where  $\mu$  is population mean.
- Suppose in actual fact,  $\mu=8$ , so  $H_0$  is wrong. We want to reject it. How likely is that to happen?
- Need population SD (take  $\sigma=4$ ) and sample size (take n=15). In practice, get  $\sigma$  from pilot/previous study, and take the n we plan to use.
- ▶ Idea: draw a random sample from the true distribution, test whether its mean is 10 or not.
- ▶ Repeat previous step "many" times.
- "Simulation".

# Making it go

Random sample of 15 normal observations with mean 8 and SD 4:

```
x <- rnorm(15, 8, 4)
x
```

```
[1] 14.487469 5.014611 6.924277 5.201860 8.852952 10.8 [8] 11.165242 8.016188 12.383518 1.378099 3.172503 13.0 [15] 5.015575
```

► Test whether x from population with mean 10 or not (over):

#### ...continued

```
t.test(x, mu = 10)
    One Sample t-test
data: x
t = -1.8767, df = 14, p-value = 0.08157
alternative hypothesis: true mean is not equal to 10
95 percent confidence interval:
  5.794735 10.280387
sample estimates:
mean of x
 8.037561
```

Fail to reject the mean being 10 (a Type II error).

# or get just P-value

```
ans \leftarrow t.test(x, mu = 10)
str(ans)
List of 10
 $ statistic : Named num -1.88
  ..- attr(*, "names")= chr "t"
 $ parameter : Named num 14
  ..- attr(*, "names")= chr "df"
 $ p.value : num 0.0816
 $ conf.int : num [1:2] 5.79 10.28
  \dots attr(*, "conf.level")= num 0.95
 $ estimate : Named num 8.04
  ..- attr(*, "names")= chr "mean of x"
 $ null.value : Named num 10
  ..- attr(*, "names")= chr "mean"
 $ stderr : num 1.05
 $ alternative: chr "two.sided"
```

\$ method : chr "One Sample t-test"

#### Run this lots of times

- without a loop!
- use rowwise to work one random sample at a time
- draw random samples from the truth
- $\blacktriangleright$  test that  $\mu = 10$
- get P-value
- Count up how many of the P-values are 0.05 or less.

#### In code

```
tibble(sim = 1:1000) %>%
  rowwise() %>%
  mutate(my_sample = list(rnorm(15, 8, 4))) %>%
  mutate(t_test = list(t.test(my_sample, mu = 10))) %>%
  mutate(p_val = t_test$p.value) %>%
  count(p_val <= 0.05)</pre>
```

We correctly rejected 422 times out of 1000, so the estimated power is 0.422.

#### Try again with bigger sample

```
tibble(sim = 1:1000) %>%
  rowwise() %>%
  mutate(my_sample = list(rnorm(40, 8, 4))) %>%
  mutate(t_test = list(t.test(my_sample, mu = 10))) %>%
  mutate(p_val = t_test$p.value) %>%
  count(p_val <= 0.05)</pre>
```

#### Calculating power

- Simulation approach very flexible: will work for any test. But answer different each time because of randomness.
- In some cases, for example 1-sample and 2-sample t-tests, power can be calculated.
- power.t.test. Input delta is difference between null and true mean:

```
power.t.test(n = 15, delta = 10-8, sd = 4, type = "one.sam]
```

One-sample t test power calculation

```
n = 15
delta = 2
sd = 4
sig.level = 0.05
power = 0.4378466
alternative = two.sided
```

#### Comparison of results

Method	Power
Simulation	0.422
power.t.test	0.4378

- ➤ Simulation power is similar to calculated power; to get more accurate value, repeat more times (eg. 10,000 instead of 1,000), which takes longer.
- ▶ CI for power based on simulation approx.  $0.42 \pm 0.03$ .
- With this small a sample size, the power is not great. With a bigger sample, the sample mean should be closer to 8 most of the time, so would reject  $H_0: \mu=10$  more often.

#### Calculating required sample size

- ▶ Often, when planning a study, we do not have a particular sample size in mind. Rather, we want to know how big a sample to take. This can be done by asking how big a sample is needed to achieve a certain power.
- ► The simulation approach does not work naturally with this, since you have to supply a sample size.
  - For that, you try different sample sizes until you get power close to what you want.
- For the power-calculation method, you supply a value for the power, but leave the sample size missing.
- Re-use the same problem:  $H_0: \mu=10$  against 2-sided alternative, true  $\mu=8,\ \sigma=4,$  but now aim for power 0.80.

#### Using power.t.test

▶ No n=, replaced by a power=:

```
power.t.test(power=0.80, delta=10-8, sd=4, type="one.sample")
```

One-sample t test power calculation

```
n = 33.3672
delta = 2
    sd = 4
sig.level = 0.05
    power = 0.8
alternative = two.sided
```

Sample size must be a whole number, so round up to 34 (to get at least as much power as you want).

#### One-sided test

```
power.t.test(power=0.80, delta=10-8, sd=4, type="one.sample")
```

One-sample t test power calculation

n = 26.13751
delta = 2
sd = 4
sig.level = 0.05
power = 0.8
alternative = one.sided

#### Power curves

- Rather than calculating power for one sample size, or sample size for one power, might want a picture of relationship between sample size and power.
- Or, likewise, picture of relationship between difference between true and null-hypothesis means and power.
- Called power curve.
- Build and plot it yourself.

#### Building it

- ▶ If you feed power.t.test a collection ("vector") of values, it will do calculation for each one.
- ▶ Do power for variety of sample sizes, from 10 to 100 in steps of 10:

```
ns <- seq(10,100,10)
ns
```

```
[1] 10 20 30 40 50 60 70 80 90 100
```

Calculate powers:

```
ans<- power.t.test(n=ns, delta=10-8, sd=4, type="one.sample")
ans</pre>
```

One-sample t test power calculation

```
n = 10, 20, 30, 40, 50, 60, 70, 80, 90, 100 delta = 2
```

# Building a plot (1/2)

Make a data frame out of the values to plot:

```
d <- tibble(n=ns, power=ans$power)
d</pre>
```

```
A tibble: 10 \times 2
       n power
   <dbl> <dbl>
      10 0.293
  20 0.564
3
   30 0.754
4
   40 0.869
5
   50 0.934
6
      60 0.968
     70 0.985
8
      80 0.993
9
      90 0.997
10
     100 0.999
```

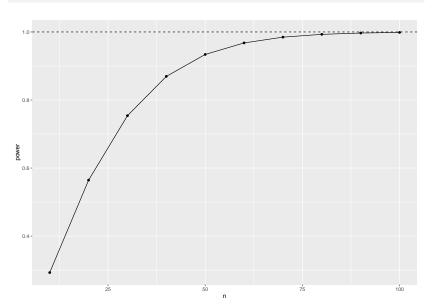
# Building a plot (2/2)

▶ Plot these as points joined by lines, and add horizontal line at 1 (maximum power):

```
g <- ggplot(d, aes(x = n, y = power)) + geom_point() +
  geom_line() +
  geom_hline(yintercept = 1, linetype = "dashed")</pre>
```

# The power curve

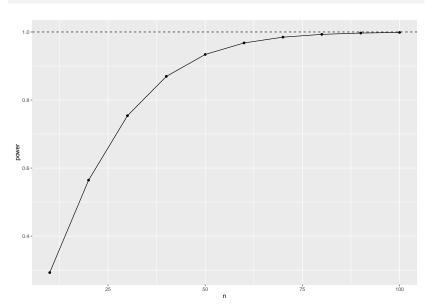




#### Another way to do it:

# The power curve done the other way

g2



#### Power curves for means

- Can also investigate power as it depends on what the true mean is (the farther from null mean 10, the higher the power will be).
- Investigate for two different sample sizes, 15 and 30.
- First make all combos of mean and sample size:

```
means <- seq(6,10,0.5)
means

[1] 6.0 6.5 7.0 7.5 8.0 8.5 9.0 9.5 10.0
```

```
ns <- c(15,30)
ns
```

```
[1] 15 30
```

```
combos <- crossing(mean=means, n=ns)</pre>
```

#### The combos

#### combos

```
# A tibble: 18 x 2
    mean
             n
   <dbl> <dbl>
     6
            15
     6
            30
    6.5
           15
    6.5
            30
 5
    7
            15
     7
            30
    7.5
            15
 8
    7.5
            30
     8
            15
10
     8
            30
11
     8.5
            15
     8.5
12
            30
13
     9
            15
14
            30
15
   9.5
            15
16
     9.5
            30
17
    10
            15
18
    10
            30
```

#### Calculate and plot

Calculate the powers, carefully:

```
[1] 0.94908647 0.99956360 0.88277128 0.99619287 0.77070660 [7] 0.61513033 0.91115700 0.43784659 0.75396272 0.2721677 [13] 0.14530058 0.26245348 0.06577280 0.09719303 0.02500000
```

# Make a data frame to plot, pulling things from the right places:

```
d <- tibble(n=factor(combos$n), mean=combos$mean,
power=ans$power)
# d <- tibble(n=combos$n, mean=combos$mean,
# power=ans$power)
d</pre>
```

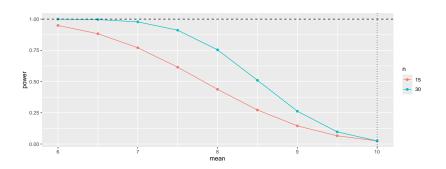
```
# A tibble: 18 x 3
        mean power
  <fct> <dbl> <dbl>
1 15
         6 0.949
2 30 6
             1.00
3 15 6.5 0.883
      6.5 0.996
4 30
5 15
      7 0.771
6 30
       7 0.978
        7.5 0.615
7 15
8 30
         7 5 0 911
```

then make the plot:

```
g <- ggplot(d, aes(x = mean, y = power, colour = n)) +
  geom_point() + geom_line() +
  geom_hline(yintercept = 1, linetype = "dashed") +
  geom_vline(xintercept = 10, linetype = "dotted")</pre>
```

# The power curves

g



#### Comments

- When mean=10, that is, the true mean equals the null mean,  $H_0$  is actually true, and the probability of rejecting it then is  $\alpha=0.05$ .
- As the null gets more wrong (mean decreases), it becomes easier to correctly reject it.
- The blue power curve is above the red one for any mean < 10, meaning that no matter how wrong  $H_0$  is, you always have a greater chance of correctly rejecting it with a larger sample size.
- Previously, we had  $H_0: \mu=10$  and a true  $\mu=8$ , so a mean of 8 produces power 0.42 and 0.80 as shown on the graph.
- With n=30, a true mean that is less than about 7 is almost certain to be correctly rejected. (With n=15, the true mean needs to be less than 6.)

#### Two-sample power

- ► For kids learning to read, had sample sizes of 22 (approx) in each group
- and these group SDs:

```
kids %>% group_by(group) %>%
summarize(n=n(), s=sd(score))
```

#### Setting up

- suppose a 5-point improvement in reading score was considered important (on this scale)
- ▶ in a 2-sample test, nul(difference of) mean is zero, so delta is true difference in means
- what is power for these sample sizes, and what sample size would be needed to get power up to 0.80?
- ▶ SD in both groups has to be same in power.t.test, so take as 14.

# Calculating power for sample size 22 (per group)

Two-sample t test power calculation

n = 22

delta = 5

sd = 14

sig.level = 0.05

power = 0.3158199

alternative = one.sided

NOTE: n is number in \*each\* group

# sample size for power 0.8

Two-sample t test power calculation

n = 97.62598
delta = 5
 sd = 14
sig.level = 0.05
 power = 0.8
alternative = one.sided

NOTE: n is number in \*each\* group

#### Comments

- ► The power for the sample sizes we have is very small (to detect a 5-point increase).
- ▶ To get power 0.80, we need 98 kids in *each* group!