## Milestone 3

# Power Analysis

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01 

Method 1

**Standard Power Analysis (T-Test)** 



#### Method 1: Standard Power Analysis (T-Test)

```
from statsmodels.stats.power import TTestIndPower
mde percent = 0.01
mean_revenue = df['revenue (t)'].mean()
diff = mde_percent * mean_revenue
analysis = TTestIndPower()
effect_size = diff / df['revenue (t)'].std()
sample_size = analysis.solve_power(
    effect size=effect size,
    power=0.9,
    alpha=0.05,
    alternative="two-sided",
print("Required sample size per group (T-Test):", round(sample_size))
Required sample size per group (T-Test): 8801
```



### Method 1: Standard Power Analysis (T-Test)

The power analysis using the t-test method shows that detecting a minimum detectable effect (MDE) of just 1% of mean revenue with 90% power at a 5% significance level requires approximately 8,801 observations per group, or about 17,600 in total.

This large sample size reflects the fact that very **small effects** are statistically harder to detect, since the difference between groups is small relative to the natural variation in revenue.

### 02 \dightarrow Method 2

MLRATE Power Analysis (Variance-reduced)



```
# Step 0: Define outcome and features
# y is our target (revenue at time t) that we want to explain
v = df['revenue (t)'].values
# x are the predictors (features from time t-1 and loyalty status)
# these will help us explain some of the variance in revenue
X = df[['aov (t-1)',
        'days since last purchase (t-1)',
        'tenure in days(t-1)',
        'loyalty membership']].values
```



```
# Step 1: Cross-fitting predictions
# we split the data into 2 folds so we can predict on data the model hasn't seen
kf = KFold(n_splits=2, shuffle=True, random_state=42)
# create empty array to store predictions
G = np.zeros_like(y)
# train on one half, predict on the other half
for train idx, test idx in kf.split(X):
    model = RandomForestRegressor(random_state=42)
    model.fit(X[train_idx], y[train_idx]) # train model
    G[test idx] = model.predict(X[test idx]) # save predictions
```



```
# Step 2: Fit OLS with G
# add a constant (intercept) to predictions
G = sm.add_constant(G)

# regress actual revenue on predicted revenue
# residuals here = the part of revenue we still can't explain
ols_model = sm.OLS(y, G).fit(cov_type="HCO")
```



```
# Step 3: Extract residuals & std
# get the unexplained part of revenue (residuals)
residuals = ols_model.resid

# calculate the standard deviation of residuals
resid_std = residuals.std(ddof=1)
```



```
# Step 4: Compute new effect size (MLRATE)
# define minimum detectable effect (mde) as 1% of average revenue
mde_percent = 0.01
mean_revenue = df['revenue (t)'].mean()
diff = mde_percent * mean_revenue

# effect size = mde / std of residuals
effect_size_mlr = diff / resid_std
```



```
# Step 5: Power analysis with new effect size
# calculate required sample size per group (90% power, 5% alpha, two-sided test)
analysis = TTestIndPower()
sample_size_mlr = analysis.solve_power(
    effect_size=effect_size_mlr,
    power=0.9,
    alpha=0.05,
    alternative="two-sided",
print("Required sample size per group (MLRATE):", round(sample_size_mlr))
Required sample size per group (MLRATE): 2778
```



The power analysis using the MLRATE method shows that detecting a minimum detectable effect (MDE) of just 1% of mean revenue with 90% power at a 5% significance level requires approximately 2,778 observations per group, or about 5,556 in total.

This reduced sample size reflects the fact that **variance reduction** through **covariate adjustment** makes it **easier to detect small effects**, since much of the natural variation in revenue is explained away by prior customer behavior.

## 03 + Comparison +

Method 1 vs Method 2



#### Method 1 vs Method 2: Comparison

#### Method 1: Standard Power Analysis (T-Test)

- Required sample size per group: 8,801 (≈17,600 total)
- Large sample size because small effects are harder to detect due to natural variance in revenue.

#### Method 2: MLRATE Power Analysis (Variance-Based)

- Required sample size per group: 2,778 (≈5,556 total, smaller amount than T-Test result)
- Smaller sample size because adjusting for covariates reduces unexplained variance, making small effects easier to detect.

MLRATE reduces the required sample size, demonstrating the benefit of variance reduction through covariate adjustment.

04 ♦

Plot



**Residual Distribution Plot** 

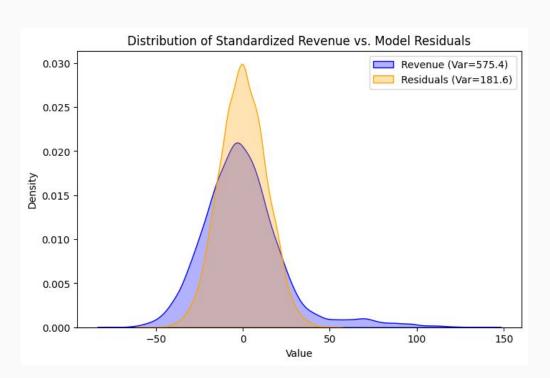


#### Residual Distribution Plot Code

```
import numpy as np
import matplotlib.pyplot as plt
import seaborn as sns
# Ensure numeric arrays
y = np.asarray(v, dtype=float)
residuals = np.asarray(residuals, dtype=float)
# Standardize (center both at 0)
revenue_std = y - np.mean(y)
residuals std = residuals - np.mean(residuals)
# Compute variances
var_revenue = np.var(revenue_std, ddof=1)
var_residuals = np.var(residuals_std, ddof=1)
# Plot KDE curves
plt.figure(figsize=(8,5))
sns.kdeplot(revenue std, color="blue", fill=True, alpha=0.3, label=f"Revenue (Var={var revenue:.1f})")
sns.kdeplot(residuals std, color="orange", fill=True, alpha=0.3, label=f"Residuals (Var={var residuals:.1f})")
plt.title("Distribution of Standardized Revenue vs. Model Residuals")
plt.xlabel("Value")
plt.ylabel("Density")
plt.legend()
plt.show()
```



#### **Residual Distribution Plot Result**



Method 2 uses the MLRATE technique which significantly reduces variances. 181.6 / 575.4 = 0.316 and 1 = 0.316 is 0.684. So MLRATE reduces variance by 68.4%. MLRATE only needs 31.6% of the sample size from the t-test/ MLRATE cuts the sample size by 68%.

# → Thank you! →

Notebook Link