

36-309/749
Experimental Design for Behavioral
and Social Sciences

Oct. 27, 2015
Lecture 7: Power

Introduction

- Common mistaken impression: After seeing the p-value, and choosing “retain” vs. reject” H_0 based on $\alpha=0.05$, we know the chance that we have “made a mistake”.
- What the omniscient see:

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Review of 2-group 1-factor ANOVA

- E.g., effect of induced guilt vs. control on sharing (0 to \$100).
- Quantitative DV, categorical IV
- Notation: $k=2$ groups; n subjects per group; $n \cdot k = N$ total subjects
- If subjects are randomly **drawn** from some population, the experiment is generalizable to that population, **regardless of sample size**, which sets external validity (narrow vs. broad). (Practically, subjects are representative of some larger group.)
- If treatment is randomly **assigned** and sample size is not too small, then the only subject characteristics with non-negligible average difference between groups is treatment (no confounding), and we can claim causality, i.e., good internal validity.
- Notation: μ_C, μ_G are population means of outcome ($\$$) for the two treatment groups.
- We observe \bar{Y}_C and \bar{Y}_G , the sample means of outcome ($\$$) for the two treatment groups.

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Review of 2-group 1-factor ANOVA

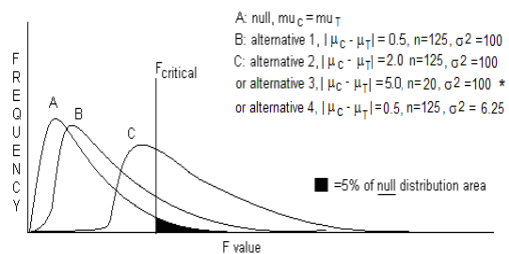
- Goal: use sample means to make inference about the effects of *changing* IV levels on the **population** mean of the DV.
- $H_0: \mu_C = \mu_G$ $H_A: \mu_C \neq \mu_G$
- Inference: Compare a statistic to its null sampling distribution.
- Statistic: $F = MS_{\text{between-groups}} / MS_{\text{within-groups}}$
- Null sampling distribution of the F-statistic; $df_b = (k-1)$, $df_w = k(n-1)$
- F-statistic (calculation) \rightarrow p-value (inferred from data and model)
- The only sampling distribution used is the null sampling distribution (not the alternative)
- Alpha (significance level) determines the Type 1 error (reject rate for true H_0)
- “Critical” F value: above=reject, below=retain H_0

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Components of an alternative scenario

- population means (see below, for more details)
- n (sample size, per group; or N=total sample size)
- σ^2 (σ_e^2) is the error variance
- Other: x-spacing for regression, etc.

Type 2 error and power



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Life Experience Examples

- Definitions:
 - A “positive” result for an experiment means finding $p \leq \alpha$. “Negative” means finding $p > \alpha$. **Neither needs omniscience.**
 - “True” means matching reality (i.e. reject H_0 when H_0 is really false or retain H_0 when H_0 is really true), and “false” means incorrect. **Both need omniscience!**
- Calculations (choosing $\alpha=0.05$):
 - Positive rate among null experiments: 5%
 - Positive rate for a specific alternative: “power” %

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Life Experience Examples

Naomi Null studies the effects of various chants on blood sugar level. Every week she studies 15 controls and 15 people who chant a particular word from the dictionary for 5 minutes. After 1000 weeks (and 1000 words) what is her Type 1 error rate (positives among null experiments), type 2-error rate (negatives among non-null experiments) and power (positives among non-null experiments)? What percent of her positives are true? What percent of her negatives are true? [Assume chanting does not affect blood sugar.]

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Life Experience Examples

Christine Cautious studies the change in glucose levels due to injecting cats with subcutaneous insulin in different locations. She divides the surface of a cat into 1000 zones and each week studies injection of 10 cats with water and 10 cats with insulin in a different zone. [Missing info:]

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Life Experience Examples

Andrea Average works for a large pharmaceutical firm performing initial screening of potential new oral hypoglycemic drugs. Each week for 1000 weeks she gives 100 rats a placebo and 100 rats a new drug, then tests blood sugar. To increase power (at the expense of more false positives) she chooses $\alpha=0.10$. [Missing info:]

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Life Experiences Conclusion

- For **your career**, you cannot know the chance that a negative result is an error or the chance that a positive result is an error.
- But you do know that when you study control vs. ineffective treatment (and your model assumptions are met) then you have only a 5% chance of incorrectly claiming the treatment is effective.
- And you know that the more you increase the power of an experiment, the better your chances are of detecting any truly effective treatment.

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A measure of effect size for ANOVA

Example: $\mu_1=5$, $\mu_2=15$, $\mu_3=40$

Using SPSS “descriptive statistics”:

$\sigma_A = SD[\text{treatment}] = 18.0$

Key observation: A larger **difference** between population means increases σ_A . Only the **spacing** matters.

E.g., $sd(5,15,40) = sd(6,16,41) = sd(0,25,35)$

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Expected Mean Square (EMS)

- Let σ_e^2 be the true error variance (including subject-to-subject, treatment application, environmental, and measurement variability) for each group. As usual, n is the number of subjects **per group**.
- Here is the EMS table for one-way (between subjects) ANOVA for **any** mean spacing.

Source of Variation	MS	EMS
Factor A	MS_A	$\sigma_e^2 + n \sigma_A^2$
Error (residual)	$MS_{error} = MS_{within\ groups}$	σ_e^2

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EMS, F statistic, and power

- $E(F) = E(MS_A/MS_{error}) \approx$

$$E(MS_A)/E(MS_{error}) = \frac{\sigma_e^2 + n\sigma_A^2}{\sigma_e^2}.$$
- E.g., $n\sigma_A^2=10$, $\sigma_e^2 = 10$ vs. 1

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Power Calculation

- Here we focus on the simple case: power in a one-way between-subjects design. Two-way ANOVA without interaction is demonstrated in lab. Two-way with interaction and linear regression are shown in the textbook (§12.84, §12.85, optional).
- **Sine qua non:** Beyond k and alpha (α), power depends on sample size, an estimate of experimental error (variance or s.d.), and one or more target effect sizes (or their spacing).

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Power Calculation, cont.

- Technical note: Alternative F sampling distributions are non-central F distributions, with a 3rd index call the non-centrality parameter, which equals zero for H_0 .
- We need to **specify particular alternative hypotheses** (target effect sizes): (§12.6)
 - reasonably likely to occur
 - or minimally interesting
 - or minimum effect size that will change your behavior

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Power Calculation, cont.

- **Obtaining an estimate of σ^2** (§12.5)
 - Statistical analysis of previous experiments (MSE, MS_{within} , or MS_{residual}) with *similar* error variance.
 - Pilot experiment: variance of the outcome measurement for a number of subjects exposed to the same (any) treatment.
 - Expert knowledge: guesstimate the 95% range (± 2 s.d.) of, say, control subjects. Assuming normality, σ is estimated as the 95% range divided by 4.
- Conventionally, “**acceptable**” power is 80%

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The calculation: Lenth Power applet

- Let $\alpha=0.10$ and $n=11$ per cell. In a similar experiment $MSE=36$. What is the power for the alternative hypothesis $\mu_1=10$, $\mu_2=12$, $\mu_3=14$, $\mu_4=16$?
- Under the null hypothesis F will follow the [central] F distribution with $k-1=3$ and $k(n-1)=40$ df. The applet (silently) finds that $F_{\text{critical}} = 2.23$.

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Power Applet, cont.

- Find $sd(10,12,14,16) = 2.58$
- In the applet enter $SD[\text{treatment}] = 2.58$
- The power is the area under the particular [non-central] F curve corresponding to your alternative scenario and which is higher than $F_{\text{critical}}=2.23$. The applet finds that this area is 0.62. This indicates that we have a 62% chance of rejecting the null hypothesis if the given alternate hypothesis is true. So the power is 62%.

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Power Calculation, cont.

- You should know that the power is
 - bigger than what we calculated (62%, here) if
 - the true error variance is smaller than what we used for σ^2
 - the true population means are more spread out than for what we calculated
 - more than $k \cdot n$ subjects are studied
 - and vice versa.

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Conclusion

Although there is a bit of educated guesswork in calculating (estimating) power, it is **strongly** advised to make some power calculations **before** running an experiment to find out if you have enough power to make running the experiment worthwhile.