9. Two-sample T-test and analysis of variance. Power and Type-II errors.

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How large should a sample be?

Given that a 95% confidence interval, e.g. for μ is obtained by

$$[\bar{X} - t_{df,\alpha}\mathsf{SE}, \bar{X} + t_{df,\alpha}\mathsf{SE}]$$

and given that α is chosen and σ is not under our control, we can only control the width W of the interval by manipulating n:

$$W = 2t_{df,\alpha} SE = 2t_{df,\alpha} s / \sqrt{n}$$
$$n = \left(\frac{2t_{df,\alpha} s}{W}\right)^2$$

How about controlling type II errors?



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Type I and Type II errors

Of course we take a risk to wrongly rejecting a true H_0 , of α . There's however also a risk that we wrongly *not* reject a false H_0 , which is called β .

	Truth	
Test result	<i>H</i> ₀ true	H_0 false
Reject H ₀	Type I error, α	ΟK, (1-β)
Do not reject H_0	ΟK (1-α)	Type II error, eta

Next 2 slides from: Wonnacott & Wonnacott, Introductory statistics.



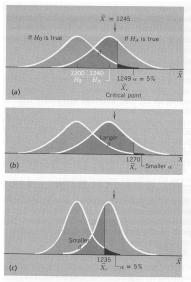
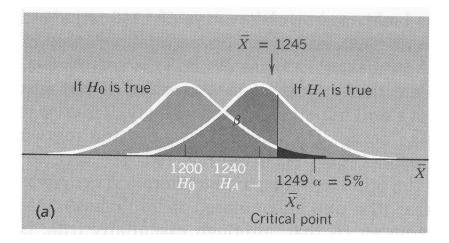


FIGURE 9-7

(a) Hypothesis test of Figure 9-6 showing α and β . (b) How a reduction in α increases β , other things being equal. (c) How an increase in sample size allows one error probability (β) to be reduced, without increasing the other (α).







- ► Given that *H*₀ is not true, then what is true? Probabilities cannot be computed without assumptions about the population.
- ► Given a fixed *H*_A, we can compute power as in the figure in the previous slide.
- ▶ For all possible *H*_A's, we obtain the *power function*.
- What determines the power?
 - The difference between the H_0 and H_A means (delta)
 - The width of the curves $(SE = \sigma/\sqrt{n})$
 - 02
 - where is α ? one-sided or two-sided
 - what is n? how is SE computed? type of test: one-sample two-sample, pained



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Description: Compute power of test, or determine parameters to obtain target power.

Details: Exactly one of the parameters n, delta, power, sd, and sig.level must be passed as NULL, and that parameter is determined from the others. Notice that the last two have non-NULL defaults so NULL must be explicitly passed if you want to compute them.



Compute sample size

NOTE: n is number in *each* group



Compute delta (H_A)

NOTE: n is number in *each* group



Compute power

```
> power.t.test(n = 20, delta = 1, sd = 1, sig.level = 0.05,
+ power = NULL, type = "two.sample", alternative = "two.sided")
```

Two-sample t test power calculation

```
n = 20
delta = 1
sd = 1
sig.level = 0.05
power = 0.8689528
alternative = two.sided
```

NOTE: n is number in *each* group



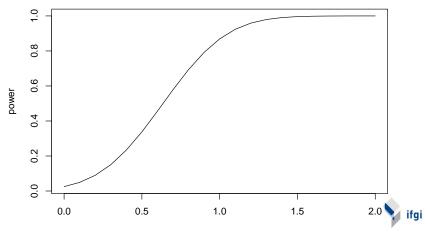
Compute significance level

NOTE: n is number in *each* group

(Note that this is of little operational use; computing sd is of even less operational use)



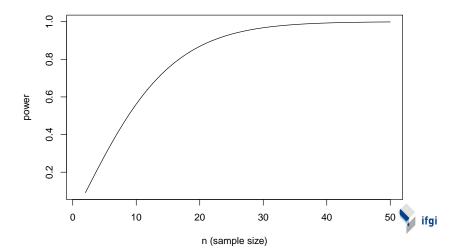
Compute power function vs. delta, n = 20, s = 1



delta

Compute power function vs. n; delta = 1

> plot(1:50, power.t.test(delta = 1, n = 1:50)\$power, type = "l", + xlab = "n (sample size)", ylab = "power")



The power concept beyond n

In a testing framework, increasing n will make every small difference in means significant, as small differences will be noted (with large power). This does not mean that the difference found is relevant.

Suppose we're studying the effect of a medication type on health, or a herbicide type on plant disease. Two large samples (with and without treatment) confirmed (showed significantly) that in the group without treatment there was 45% succes, less than in the group with treatment with 47% success.

That's OK, but should we now collectively apply the treatment? Do the effects compensate for the costs and side effects?

Significance is something else as relevance



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The power concept beyond n

Taking a larger sample always increases power. Can we do something else to increase power? Yes: choose a more appropriate analysis. Recall the paired data of lecture 7:

obj	t_1	t_2
1	13.5	12.7
2	15.3	15.1
3	7.5	6.6
4	10.3	8.5
5	8.7	8.0

```
> x1 = c(13.5, 15.3, 7.5, 10.3, 8.7)
> x2 = c(12.7, 15.1, 6.6, 8.5, 8)
> x1 - x2
```

[1] 0.8 0.2 0.9 1.8 0.7



```
> t.test(x1, x2, var.equal = TRUE)
        Two Sample t-test
data: x1 and x2
t = 0.4066, df = 8, p-value = 0.695
alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0
95 percent confidence interval:
-4 111314 5 871314
sample estimates:
mean of x mean of y
    11.06 10.18
> t.test(x1, x2, paired = TRUE)
        Paired t-test
data: x1 and x2
t = 3.3896, df = 4, p-value = 0.02754
alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0
95 percent confidence interval:
0.1591929 1.6008071
sample estimates:
mean of the differences
                   0.88
```

> power.t.test(delta = 0.88, n = 5, sd = sqrt((var(x1) + + var(x2))/2))

Two-sample t test power calculation

n = 5
delta = 0.88
sd = 3.422353
sig.level = 0.05
power = 0.0548756
alternative = two.sided

NOTE: n is number in *each* group

> power.t.test(delta = 0.88, n = 5, sd = sd(x1 - x2), type = "paired")

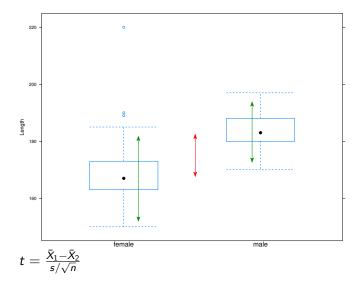
Paired t test power calculation

n = 5
delta = 0.88
sd = 0.580517
sig.level = 0.05
power = 0.7192318
alternative = two.sided

NOTE: n is number of *pairs*, sd is std.dev. of *differences* within p

ifgi

Two-sample T-test and analysis of variance.





• let $n_1 = n_2 = n$ and $N = n_1 + n_2$, and assume $\sigma_1 = \sigma_2$

$$t^{2} = \frac{(\bar{X}_{1} - \bar{X}_{2})^{2}n}{s^{2}} = \frac{n \operatorname{Var}(\bar{X}_{i})}{s^{2}}$$

- ▶ $\frac{n \operatorname{Var}(X_i)}{s^2}$, with s^2 the pooled (averaged, joined) within-group variance
- numerator: variance, as obtained from variability between groups (group means)
- denominator: variance, as obtained from variability within groups (ignores differences between groups)
- Under the hypothesis $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = ... = \mu_p$,

$$F = \frac{n \operatorname{Var}(\bar{X}_i)}{s^2}$$

follows the *F* distribution with p - 1 (numerator) and N - p (denominator) degrees of freedom.

This idea generalizes the two-sample t-test, testing $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$ togin the F-test, testing $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \dots = \mu_p$.

• let
$$n_1 = n_2 = n$$
 and $N = n_1 + n_2$, and assume $\sigma_1 = \sigma_2$
• $t = \frac{\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2}{s/\sqrt{n}} = \frac{(\bar{X}_1 - \bar{X}_2)\sqrt{n}}{s}$

- ► $t^2 = \frac{(\bar{X}_1 \bar{X}_2)^2 n}{s^2} = \frac{n \operatorname{Var}(\bar{X}_i)}{s^2}$ ► $\frac{n \operatorname{Var}(\bar{X}_i)}{s^2}$, with s^2 the pooled (averaged, joined) within-group

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Why not use many t-tests?

Suppose we have three groups, and we can reject $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2$, we can reject $H_0: \mu_2 = \mu_3$, but cannot reject $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_3$.

This will be clumsy to explain.

When hypothesis $H_0: \mu_1 = \mu_2 = \mu_3$ is rejected, we can continue work under the hypothesis "the group means are not identical".

Suppose we have many (10) groups with few observations (3) each. Pairwise testing has very little power (df = 4), whereas joint testing with ANOVA has (df = 20).



Why not use many t-tests?

Suppose we have three groups, and we can reject H₀ : µ₁ = µ₂, we can reject H₀ : µ₂ = µ₃, but cannot reject H₀ : µ1 = µ₃.

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Suppose we have many (10) groups with few observations (3) each. Pairwise testing has very little power (df = 4), whereas joint testing with ANOVA has (df = 20).



How to read ANOVA tables?

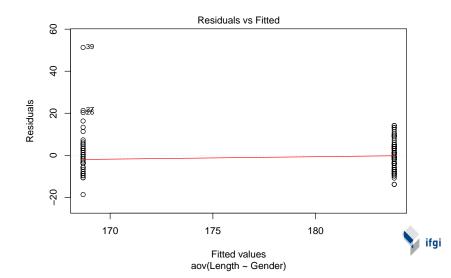
Gender: effect, explanatory variable, grouping variable, between groups

Residuals: error, within-groups, unexplained variability Df: degrees of freedom for that row Sum Sq: sum of squares, between or within Mean Sq: mean squares: Sum Sq divided by Df F value: Mean Sq effect divided by Mean Sq Residuals Pr(>F): significance level, p-value

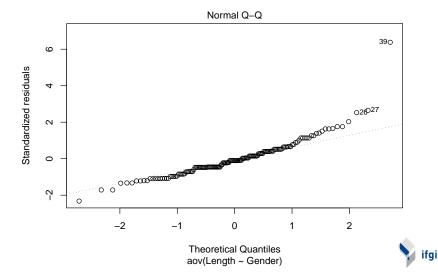


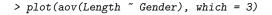
> plot(aov(Length ~ Gender), which = 1)
> Length[31]

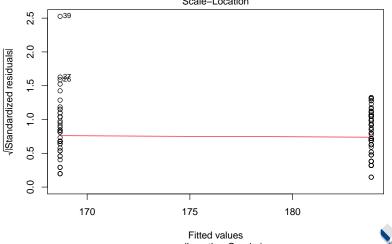
[1] 162



> plot(aov(Length ~ Gender), which = 2)







Scale-Location

aov(Length ~ Gender)

ifgi

Two-way ANOVA; setting up data

b

е

t2 c

t2 d

t2

6.6

10 8.0

8 9 8.5

```
The data can also be organized like this:
> x = data.frame(resp = c(x1, x2), time = rep(c("t1", "t2")),
     each = 5), obj = rep(letters[1:5], 2))
+
> x
  resp time obj
1
  13.5
       t1
             а
  15.3 t1 b
2
3
 7.5 t1 c
  10.3 t1 d
4
5
 8.7 t1
             е
  12.7 t2 a
6
7
  15.1
       t2
```

Two-way ANOVA

One-way ANOVA:

```
> summary(aov(resp ~ time, x))
```

Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F) time 1 1.936 1.936 0.1653 0.695 Residuals 8 93.700 11.713

Two-way ANOVA:

```
> summary(aov(resp ~ time + obj, x))
```

Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F) time 1 1.936 1.9360 11.490 0.0275393 * obj 4 93.026 23.2565 138.021 0.0001545 *** Residuals 4 0.674 0.1685 ---Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1 ' ' 1



```
Paired t-test vs two-way ANOVA
    Paired t-test:
    > t.test(x1, x2, paired = TRUE)
           Paired t-test
    data: x1 and x2
    t = 3.3896, df = 4, p-value = 0.02754
    alternative hypothesis: true difference in means is not equal to 0
    95 percent confidence interval:
     0.1591929 1.6008071
    sample estimates:
    mean of the differences
                      0.88
    Two-way ANOVA:
    > summary(aov(resp ~ time + obj, x))
               Df Sum Sq Mean Sq F value Pr(>F)
                1 1.936 1.9360 11.490 0.0275393 *
    time
    obj
                4 93.026 23.2565 138.021 0.0001545 ***
    Residuals 4 0.674 0.1685
                                                                   ifgi
    ___
    Signif. codes: 0 '***' 0.001 '**' 0.01 '*' 0.05 '.' 0.1
```

Note: *p*-values are identical. Anova generalizes paired t-tests in the sense that e.g. time can have more than 2 levels (but is considered categorical). Further extensions: three-way, more-way anova; interactions. Now introduce the meuse data set



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