Effect size and power analysis

LING82100: Statistics for Linguistic Research

A measure of the **magnitude** (though usually not the sign) of the effect.

In a one-sample test, it might be defined in terms of the difference between the sample statistic (e.g., sample mean or median) and the null hypothesis parameter (e.g., the hypothesized population mean or median).

In a paired-sample test, it might be defined in terms of the sample mean (or median) of differences between the paired samples and a null hypothesis parameter (mean or median) of zero difference.

More generally: a measure of the impact of the independent variable (or predictor) on the dependent variable (or outcome)

Relation to other measures

Effect size is completely independent of sample size, and not directly related to *p*-values or statistical significance.

Thus both small and large effect sizes can give significant or non-significant results, depending on other factors.





Sample size and effect size

- As effect size *d* (etc.) increases, the expected *t* (etc.) increases linearly
- As sample size *n* increases, the expected *t* increases as a function of $\sqrt{[n/2]}$.

Power

- The degree to which we are able to detect a significant difference
- The probability that the null hypothesis will be rejected, given a particular sample size, effect size, and a
- The proportion of the alternative hypothesis distribution beyond the critical value for the given a

Power as a function of expected t (δ) and effect size





Power as a function of δ and α

δ	<u>.10</u>	<u>.05</u>	<u>.02</u>	<u>.01</u>
1.00	.26	.17	.09	.06
1.10	.29	.20	.11	.07
1.20	.33	.22	.13	.08
1.30	.37	.26	.15	.10
1.40	.40	.29	.18	.12
1.50	.44	.32	.20	.14
1.60	.48	.36	.23	.17
1.70	.52	.40	.27	.19
1.80	.56	.44	.30	.22
1.90	.60	.48	.34	.25
2.00	.64	.52	.37	28
2.10	.68	.56	.41	.32
2.20	.71	.60	.45	.35
2.30	.74	.63	.49	.39
2.40	.78	.67	.53	.43
2.50	.80	.71	.57	.47
2.60	.83	.74	.61	.51
2.70	.85	.77	.65	.55
2.80	.88	.80	.68	.59
2.90	.90	.83	.72	.63
3.00	.91	.85	.75	.66
3.10	.93	.87	.78	.70
3.20	.94	.89	.81	.73
3.30	.95	.91	.84	.77
3.40	.96	.93	.86	.80
3.50	.97	.94	.88	.82
3.60	.98	.95	.90	.85
3.70	.98	.96	.92	.87
3.80	.98	.97	.93	.89
3.90	.99	.97	.94	.91
4.00	.99	.98	.95	.92

To increase power

- increase a (at the cost of Type I error),
- increase *d*,
- increase precision of measurement,
- decrease variability (e.g., by using a within-subjects design), or
- increase *n*.

Power analysis in R (pwr library)

pwr.2p.test	two proportions (equal <i>n</i>)
pwr.2p2n.test	two proportions (unequal <i>n</i>)
pwr.anova.test	balanced one-way ANOVA
pwr.chisq.test	Pearson chi-square test
pwr.f2.test	Generalized linear model
pwr.p.test	one proportion
pwr.r.test	correlation
pwr.t.test	<i>t</i> -test (one-sample, two-sample, paired)
pwr.t2n.test	<i>t</i> -test (two-sample, unequal <i>n</i>)

```
> library(pwr)
> pwr.t.test(n = 25, d = .5, sig.level = .05, type = "paired")
            Paired t test power calculation
```

```
n = 25
d = 0.5
sig.level = 0.05
power = 0.6697077
alternative = two.sided
```

NOTE: n is number of *pairs*

```
alternative = two.sided
```

NOTE: n is number of *pairs*

Fisher's exact test

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Testing for independence of categorical variables

Fisher's exact test tests for the independence of two categorical (usually boolean) variables.

The null hypothesis that the population conditional probabilities are equal. To compute the null hypothesis *p*-value, we compute the probability of each count table that has conditional probabilities *as extreme* or *more extreme* than those observed in the sample, then sum those probabilities.

This test makes obsolete the earlier *Pearson chi-square test*, one of the earliest null hypothesis tests, which is merely approximate (i.e., asymptotically correct), now that we have digital computers and can compute the factorial possibilities quickly...

The lady tasting tea

The "lady" (believed to be Muriel Bristol, a phycologist) claimed that she could tell whether milk or tea was added first.

a = her guess as to whether milk or tea was added firstb = whether milk or tea was added first

This is something of a class shibboleth in the British Isles:

- upper-class people usually put the tea in first
- lower-class people (and the Irish) usually put the milk in first

(cf. George Orwell's essay A Nice Cup of Tea.)

The lady tasting tea

Guess \ Reality	Milk first	Tea first
Milk first	7	2
Tea first	2	8

Ô	1	Ô2 Ô3		Ô4 Ô5				Ô6 Ô7			Ô8			Ô9			Ô10									
9	0	8	8	1	7	2		6	3		5	4		4	5		3	6	2	7		1	8		0	9
1	9	2	2	8	3	7		4	6		5	5		6	4		7	3	8	2		9	1		10	0
																			this	la	rge	or	lar	ger'	1	
			а						b							а	+ Ł)								
			С							d				c + d												
				a-	+ c					b + d																

p = [(a + b)! (c + d) (a + c)! (b + d)!] / [(a + b + c + d)! a! b! c! d!]

```
> tab <- cbind(c(7, 2), c(2, 8))
> tab
      [,1] [,2]
[1,] 7 2
[2,] 2 8
```

```
> fisher.test(tab)
```

```
Fisher's Exact Test for Count Data
```

```
data: tab
p-value = 0.02301
alternative hypothesis: true odds ratio is not equal to 1
95 percent confidence interval:
        1.116329 214.179160
sample estimates:
        odds ratio
```

```
11.64655
```