

2.3 Power

Consider a hypothesis test about the parameter θ :

$$egin{aligned} H_0: heta &= heta_0 \ H_a: heta &> heta_0 \end{aligned}$$

We let $\beta = P(\text{fail to reject } H_0 | H_0 \text{ is false}) = P(\text{Type II error})$, then Power = $P(\text{reject } H_0 | H_0 \text{ is false}) = 1 - \beta$.

Power depends on the distance between the hypothesized value of the parameter θ_0 and the actual value θ_1 , so we can write $1 - \beta(\theta_1)$.

Why is power important?

1.

2.

For a few simple cases, you can derive a closed form expression of power.

Example 2.4 Consider a one-sample *z*-test. Sample $X_1, \ldots, X_n \stackrel{iid}{\sim} N(\mu, \sigma^2)$.

So power is a function of

1.

- 2.
- 3.
- 4.

2.4 MC Estimator of $1 - \beta$

Assume $X_1, \ldots, X_n \sim F(\theta_0)$ (i.e., assume H_0 is true).

Then, we have the following hypothesis test –

$$egin{aligned} H_0: heta &= heta_0 \ H_a: heta &> heta_0 \end{aligned}$$

and the statistics T^* , which is a test statistic computed from data. Then we reject H_0 if $T^* >$ the critical value from the distribution of the test statistic.

This leads to the following algorithm to estimate the power of the test $(1 - \beta)$

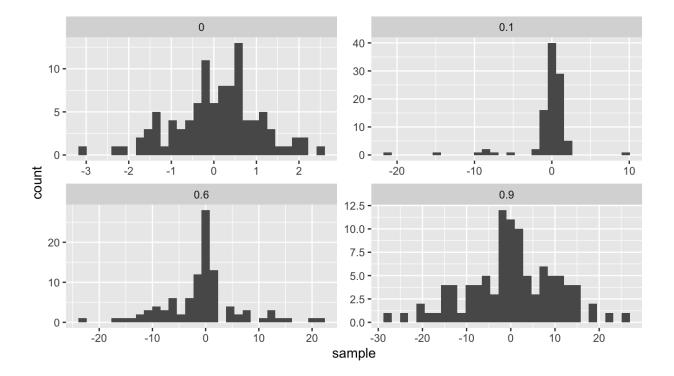
Your Turn

Consider data generated from the following mixture distribution:

$$f(x)=(1-\epsilon)f_1(x)+\epsilon f_2(x),\quad x\in\mathbb{R}$$

where f_1 is the pdf of a N(0, 1) distribution, f_2 is the pdf of a N(0, 100) distribution, and $\epsilon \in [0, 1]$.

```
r_noisy_normal <- function(n, epsilon) {
    z <- rbinom(n, 1, 1 - epsilon)
    z*rnorm(n, 0, 1) + (1 - z)*rnorm(n, 0, 10)
}
n <- 100
data.frame(e = 0, sample = r_noisy_normal(n, 0)) %>%
    rbind(data.frame(e = 0.1, sample = r_noisy_normal(n, 0.1))) %>%
    rbind(data.frame(e = 0.6, sample = r_noisy_normal(n, 0.6))) %>%
    rbind(data.frame(e = 0.9, sample = r_noisy_normal(n, 0.9))) %>%
    ggplot() +
    geom_histogram(aes(sample)) +
    facet_wrap(.~e, scales = "free")
```



We will compare the power of various tests of normality. Let F_X be the distribution of a random variable X. We will consider the following hypothesis test,

 $H_0: F_x \in N$ vs. $H_a: F_x \notin N,$

where N denotes the family of univariate Normal distributions.

Recall Pearson's moment coefficient of skewness (See Example 2.2).

We will compare Monte Carlo estimates of power for different levels of contamination ($0 \le \epsilon \le 1$). We will use $\alpha = 0.1$, n = 100, and m = 100.

```
# skewness statistic function
skew <- function(x) {</pre>
  xbar <- mean(x)</pre>
  num <- mean((x - xbar)^3)
  denom <- mean((x - xbar)^2)
  num/denom<sup>1</sup>.5
}
# setup for MC
alpha <- .1
n <- 100
m < -100
epsilon <- seq(0, 1, length.out = 200)</pre>
var sqrt b1 <- 6*(n - 2)/((n + 1)*(n + 3)) \# adjusted variance for
 skewness test
crit val <- qnorm(1 - alpha/2, 0, sqrt(var sqrt b1)) #crit value for
  the test
empirical pwr <- rep(NA, length(epsilon)) #storage</pre>
# estimate power for each value of epsilon
for(j in 1:length(epsilon)) {
  # perform MC to estimate empirical power
  ## Your turn
}
## store empirical se
empirical_se <- "Your Turn: fill this in"</pre>
## plot results --
## x axis = epsilon values
## y axis = empirical power
## use lines + add band of estimate +/- se
```

Compare the power with n = 100 to the power with n = 10. Make a plot to compare the two for many values of ϵ .